

Sociology and Social Research . . . AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

Sociology as a Stabilizer of Per-
sonality in Wartime 3
BESSIE AVERNE McCLENAHAN

The Community Status of Farm Labor . . . 12
E. D. TETREAU

Open Country Neighborhoods 22
J. ROY LEEVY

Labor under Review 31
MELVIN J. VINCENT

Social Values of the Credit Union 40
DAVID CROSBY

Toward Improved World Relations 48
EMORY S. BOGARDUS

The World Viewed Sociologically—IV . . . 56
JOHN ERIC NORDSKOG

Social Research 61	Social Theory 75
Social Welfare 64	Social Fiction 81
Races and Culture 72	

Sociology and Social Research

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

PUBLISHED BIMONTHLY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

3551 UNIVERSITY AVENUE, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION, \$3.00

SINGLE COPIES, 60¢

Entered as second-class matter March 31, 1936, at the post office at Los Angeles, California, under the act of March 3, 1879.

Editor

Emory S. Bogardus

Associate Editors

Clarence M. Case

George B. Mangold

Bessie A. McClenahan

Melvin J. Vincent

Erle F. Young

John E. Nordskog

Managing Editor

Martin H. Neumeyer

*The University of
Southern California*

Co-operating Editors

Andrew W. Lind.....	University of Hawaii, Hawaii
Ernest W. Burgess.....	University of Chicago
F. Stuart Chapin.....	University of Minnesota
Carl A. Dawson.....	McGill University, Canada
Guillaume L. Duprat.....	University of Geneva, Switzerland
Earle E. Eubank.....	University of Cincinnati
Charles A. Ellwood.....	Duke University
Ellsworth Faris.....	University of Chicago
Samuel H. Jameson.....	University of Oregon
William Kirk.....	Pomona College
James P. Lichtenberger.....	University of Pennsylvania
Serafin E. Macaraig.....	University of the Philippines
Otakar Machotka.....	Prague University, Czechoslovakia
Radhakamal Mukerjee.....	Lucknow University, India
Howard W. Odum.....	University of North Carolina
Raul A. Orgaz.....	University of Cordoba, Argentina
Robert E. Park.....	University of Chicago
Edward A. Ross.....	University of Wisconsin
Pitirim Sorokin.....	Harvard University
Jesse F. Steiner.....	University of Washington
Frank S. C. Yen.....	Fuh-tan Ta-hsih University, China
Florian Znaniecki.....	University of Poznan, Poland

PUBLISHED BY

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA PRESS

3551 UNIVERSITY AVENUE

LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

General
10-22-43

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL RESEARCH
September-October, 1942

●

**SOCIOLOGY AS A STABILIZER OF
PERSONALITY IN WARTIME**

BESSIE AVERNE McCLENAHAN
The University of Southern California

● War creates personal tensions. Plans are unsettled and changed. The future of personal goals and ambitions fades before the compulsion of war activity and service. Emotions rise to the surface. Fear and greed and love and hate seethe. Personal relationships take on new and intense meanings. The immediacy of the present stimulates unsuspected depths and also frailties of the human spirit. Hunger for some kind of security becomes almost an obsession in the threat of chaos and loss. How can a person grip the verities of human existence? What kind of answer can he find to the enigma of living? Where can he find some intelligent basis for an understanding of himself, and some guides for steering his own personal course?

Today, the young man faces problems of participation in the war, of loyalty to his country, of loss of faith in the possibility of international good will. Is the price of surrender of personal ambitions and career worth the uncertainties of the outcome of war? What of love and of marriage and of family? What are ultimate values? What things are most worth while? And the young woman faces many of the same questions plus the responsibility of keeping up her own morale as a means of helping the young man maintain his. Can she hold on to her own ideals and not let go in the face of the fleeting moment that presses so hard upon the desire to find some security in that brief passing moment?

Sociology dares give no authoritarian answers without forswearing the integrity of its scientific efforts. It can, however, point to the values of human personality, to the significance of human interdependence, to the social meaning of the ultimate aloneness of each human being, to the satisfactions to be found in human relationships of love and affection (not forgetting the obligations they entail), to the many human factors that enter into any social situation, to the many influences that go into the making of personality—and so sociology¹ can give to the inquiring student some basis for greater clarity in his thinking, for more charity toward all men of good will, and for a more dependable faith in the value of struggle toward ideal ends.

Specifically, what does sociology have to offer in this time of world crisis? I suggest three possible contributions.

I

Sociology provides a foundation for an appreciation of the common aspirations of all people throughout human history, as it analyzes the meaning and the significance of human association. In other words, it gives a more realistic perspective of human society and of the individual as a responsible and integral member of it. Society, that is, human beings in association, is seen as a process of changing relationships but always a process in which men live and work and struggle and play together. Personality emerges out of this process of interaction, in which all

¹ Sociology has been defined briefly as the science of social relationships. It is the scientific study of human beings in association; of the forces which play upon that association; of the struggles to achieve some mastery over both physical and social environments, resulting in technology and culture with their totality of institutions, of "things," of machines, of traditions and customs, of beliefs, of dreams, of achievements, and of failures. It is concerned with the changing relationships of people as they work toward a stable social order. Human society is a unit; men are inseparable. Sometimes they cooperate; sometimes they betray one another; and sometimes they rise to the heights of devotion and sacrifice for one another.

persons are inextricably bound together and in connection with which they must work out their salvation always in relation to one another.

What do people want? As the long course of history is reviewed by the sociologist, it is clear that they have wanted the same things basically, though the concrete demands are always conditioned by the prevailing culture: food and comfort, leisure and rest, solitude and fellowship with their peers, play and work, fun and achievement, thrills and "the new," friends and family—to love and to be loved. They want place, both a place on the surface of the earth, a physical habitat, and a place among their fellows—to belong, to share, to take. Their struggles have revolved about their efforts to get these things; and their problems, about the most effective methods and about their personal inadequacies and their individual and group failures.

Humanity's centuries-old history from the point of view of the person and his desires is seen as a constant effort of the man at the bottom, the marginal man, to find individual self-expression, which he fondly calls "freedom." Slowly the idea of the value of every human being in himself and to himself, as well as to the family, to industry, and to the state, has percolated through all social strata.

Or again, history may be analyzed in terms of changing technologies, of inventions, both material and social—tools, things, machines, institutions—utilized to control the course of human activity. As inventions have broadened social contacts, men have challenged and discarded many of the old authorities to which they looked for guidance and whose wisdom they accepted as infallible. Today, nation struggles against nation, and within the nation dictators and self-centered cliques also struggle for power in order to dominate the opposition as well as the total

citizenry. All these warring elements have failed to recognize the basic social fact of human interdependence, and in this failure the social scientist foresees the doom of blind philosophy and the emergence of socialized thought and action.

Sociology has consistently taught that all the members and groups of human society are interdependent, that they can never be free from one another. Individual satisfactions and the acceptance of all men's choicest efforts are forever dependent upon the appreciation of their fellows. Therefore, it is pertinent to the stabilization of personality in this time of war that more general recognition be given to the fact that in the continuing survival of human society two possibilities are before mankind: one, the development within the person of effective individual controls over his own conduct based upon his obligations to all mankind and expressive of generosity, of tolerance, of cooperation, and of service which shall guarantee a free and democratic social organization; and the other, the compulsion of the whiplash of an authoritarian state that imposes rigid, arbitrary controls, that dictates the code to be followed, and that lays out a regimen regardless of the person's individual wishes should he dare to have any of his own choosing.

The process of social growth is not of a day. The wide, balanced, age-long perspective of sociology enables persons to see that conflicts and war, peace settlements and treaties are parts of a long, slow process of social evolution. Out of this process emerges the clearer meaning of service and of the common values upon which men may more safely build both personality and a more equitable social order.

II

Sociology helps the person, sometimes bewildered and confused by the frightful spectacle of war, to work out a

more satisfying personal philosophy as a basis of his adjustment to life and its insecurities. It helps him to find more satisfying definitions of fundamental values and thus to develop more rational approaches toward the solution of both individual and national problems. The thesis of sociology runs something like this. The human being is born into a family, in a community, in a nation, a bit of plastic stuff with unknown possibilities and capacities of body, of mind, and of sociality; yet the human being is not just plastic stuff to be molded and beaten into a set, predetermined pattern, totalitarian regimentation to the contrary notwithstanding. The human being is active. According to Hart, the primary motivation animating him is the drive to function, to act.² When the human being becomes inert, when he no longer functions, he is dead. Life is dynamic and positive. The person is not an automaton to dance when the spring is wound up and released by a "master" hand. He reacts to stimulus. But he evaluates the stimulus; and, though his reaction may be slowed down by physical inadequacy—sickness, hunger, pain—eventually he dares to challenge even his suffering and to seek a way to conquer it.

An American philosopher has said that the only end which the human mind can even conceive is the end which serves as the beginning of something better. Once man begins to think, no barrier is high enough or thick enough or formidable enough (even though it bristle with death) to stop his thought. And note: the individual's thinking is never without its eventual social significance. To repeat: the individual cannot untie his social bonds. *Men must find their answers together.* No man lives unto himself alone, nor can he so live.

Concretely, in his relationships with family and friends, the person asks himself, what am I doing *to* them? Some

² H. Hart, *The Science of Social Relations*, p. 15.

weeks ago, Miss Margaret Bondfield of England said that in her country the very immediacy of their situation has made people kinder, more generous, more considerate. In the United States we may well ask: How does the American react to war? What patterns is he manifesting?

Today, personal relationships take on new meaning. Under the emotional urge for affectional security, some young men and women are marrying impetuously. Again, as in all of behavior, personal values rise to the surface. What is the basis for the most intimate relation known to man? Can the person demonstrate his own integrity? Can he or she accept the responsibility of marriage and give generously and without regret? Is the relationship based on the verities which hold true through separation and disappointment and pain? These same questions or similar ones may be raised concerning other associations, e.g., with friends, with employer, and with the stranger within our gates.

Sociology helps the person achieve stability by pointing out the factors that contribute to a calm and steady adjustment to the ups and downs of daily life and to the shocks of war. It emphasizes the fact that human beings are much more alike than they are different; that they are all parts of a continuing social process in which men work both consciously and unconsciously toward an organization of society in which human personality and social cooperation, personal development and individual identification with the common good shall be recognized as the supreme social values.

III

Sociology answers the puzzling questions: what is personality? and what is the meaning of personal adjustment? Personality is like a jewel of many facets. While a jewel is a unit with a characteristic quality and composition, it

throws back the light in a myriad of color tones as the light changes or is caught and reflected at different angles from different facets. Like the jewel, personality is many sided, and, consequently, the observer often misjudges the meaning of a certain act because he fails to see it only as a part of the person's total behavior pattern.

To the sociologist, personality is a functioning unity, constantly changing as it experiences new situations—people, events, places, ways of doing and of thinking. It is cumulative in its expression, the totality of personality organization determining the reaction to each new experience or to a repeated one (always manifested in a slightly different setting), and the effects being woven continuously into the changing whole. It is a composite of emotion, intelligence, and bodily constitution, always characterized by its own margin of uniqueness and dependent upon its peculiar hereditary equipment, the food consumed, the degree of effective functioning of all its organs, and the types of stimuli projected upon its awareness at a given moment.

Again, it should be remembered, as the sociologist points out, that all persons are handicapped by the limited methods they have of communicating their thoughts and feelings, so that no one person can ever know another person completely, no matter how deep the affection or how complete the devotion. That is a hard saying. Two corollaries follow: (1) It is not possible ever completely to know the struggles another person has faced, or the extent and kinds of his reactions to his successes or to his failures. Effort can be made to *try* to understand, and the quick passing of judgment, so often condemnation, can be restrained. (2) It is not possible to develop another's personality, or to solve another's problems.

Each man or woman develops his own personality and solves or fails to solve his own problems. Perhaps help

may be given when that help is sought. But it should be noted that the call for help, if it comes, is not only an opportunity; it carries definite obligations because of the vital effects of the impact of one personality upon another. Attempts at compulsion, domination, possessiveness, and exploitation of other persons will defeat the effort to be helpful. On the contrary, a certain respect accorded the person's right to work out his own salvation opens the way for effective counseling in any area: in the family, among friends, in schools and universities. Advisement is the most delicate art in all of human achievement because, as the sociologist makes clear, out of every human contact, ineradicable effects find expression in *both* the counselee and the counselor.

On the basis of the above premises, adjustment is logically recognized as a continuing process which might better be termed "adjusting." It is never final. From the point of view of sociology, it is characterized by a degree of satisfaction within the self because one has functioned in terms of one's own chief values and in terms of the approval of one's associates.

War intensifies some of the problems of personal adjustment and threatens stability, especially because of the violence with which it overthrows the ordinary activities of both the individual and the group (the family, the community, and the state). It furnishes drastic tests of personality. Fears for himself and loved ones on the part of both the soldier and the civilian upset his calm and threaten emotional balance. The personal demands upon another for attention, for sympathy, which sometimes degenerates into self-pity, may place such a heavy burden upon the companion that a wholesome, mutual respect and sturdy dependability within the relationship are irrevocably lost. And such an outcome may mean personal tragedy for either or for both.

One of the most devastating emotions is fear. Hugh Walpole in his famous novel, *Fortitude*, makes his chief character say when his life topples about him in the failure of his latest book, the death of his only child, the infidelity of his wife, and the betrayal by his dearest friend: "It isn't life that matters; it's the courage that you bring to it." So in the face of war, "the rational personality will recognize that even though it cannot change the stimuli which come into its life, it can by courage, by patience, by insight, by persistence, build up, out of any stimuli . . . constructive" attitudes and a greater strength to face any eventuality. Courage has been defined as "the emotion accompanying intelligent grappling with a menacing stimulus."³

Another attitude which may help in the stabilization of personality is related to youth's wish for adventure, one of the basic social drives in all human beings. "All things worth while in life—love, friendship, loyalty, knowledge, art, religion—are adventures in which the human spirit goes out to experience the realities of life."⁴ And so in this time of crisis, men and women both may enter upon this new experience determined to extract from it the measure of themselves and to learn how the future may better be safeguarded for all mankind.

Life for the individual is lived, not in the counted years from birth to death, but in the eagerness with which realities are faced, in the understanding of other human beings, and in the contributions to social well-being which the person's talents and capacities make possible. It is through these and other related conceptions that sociology helps the person find a more positive sense of direction and thus of security, even though he may live in the midst of violent insecurity, that is—war.

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 169.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 21, quotation from *American Journal of Public Health*, in *Literary Digest*, Sept. 12, 1925, p. 65.

THE COMMUNITY STATUS OF FARM LABOR*

E. D. TETREAU

PROFESSOR OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY
AND RURAL SOCIOLOGIST
College of Agriculture
University of Arizona

- This paper is in the nature of an interpretation of some of the work already done in Arizona as it applies to problems of farm labor, as well as being a rough sketch of some of the things that it would seem desirable to undertake in the future.

For purposes of this discussion it may be well, first, to bring to mind some of the problems which have created a considerable degree of public interest both in farm labor itself and in its community aspects; second, to make suggestions for projects dealing with those phases of the problems which seem to lend themselves to investigation; and, third, to give some attention to certain possible outcomes.

Three large problems have been much in the public eye: the problem of getting farm labor, especially seasonal, when and where needed and in sufficient quantities; the problem of an adequate living and of satisfactory living conditions for the farm laborer population; and the problem of the farm laborer's place in the system of things.

While the first problem is associated in the popular mind with weather-beaten people rattling along transcontinental highways lined with signs that point to the land of golden dreams, the western farmer's need for help in unbelievable quantities, just at the right time, is not merely a matter of individual concern. It is a matter that concerns the entire community.

* A paper read at the Annual Meeting of the Western Farm Economics Association, Salt Lake City, July 25, 26, and 27, 1941.

Likewise the problem of living and living conditions for the laborer population is a question which sooner or later focuses the attention of the community. It also develops as a consequence of the community's function as a working unit in the public administration of health and sanitation. While the county serves as the unit of administration in the control of communicable diseases, the community is the working unit through which health examinations are made and medical and social controls applied. As to the housing of migratory laborers, the community's idea of the problem is more realistic than is that of the general public. The community knows that clean, decent camps are costly but that under good management they serve to sift out the slovenly workers and troublemakers, and attract desirable workers.

The problem of the farm laborer's place in the system of things is the most basic of the three. Is the agricultural laborer part of a system in which he may rise as high as his abilities and energy will take him? Does he want to get ahead, or does he fear a rap on the knuckles if he reaches for the next rung on the ladder? Is he anxious to get land of his own, or does he want to move onto a government farm? Is he playing with some ideology which promises a place for him when "the people" take over, or is he basically loyal to the American system? And nowhere are questions such as these so pertinent as in communities based on irrigation, communities in which the road upward is not impassable, but is steep and narrow and the drop over the edge is sudden and far.

What segments or parts of these problems, may it now be asked, lend themselves to formulation as problems for experiment station research? Certainly no one who is a worker in this field will fail to appreciate the need for modesty in conceiving and planning projects in view of the limitations of funds and workers in rural sociology

in the greater numbers of the western states. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the suggestions which are to follow may be useful, even though appearing in part a bit beyond immediate reach. Then, too, it is hoped that workers in the various departments and agencies of the federal government will find points which may well be hooked together in large, over-all research projects or even suggestions for action programs as they concern the community and the farm laborer. Moreover, it must be remembered that sociologists and economists as well as other specialists may exchange work to their mutual advantage.

Let us begin with a project which would ordinarily belong in the farm management field. I refer to a study of hired labor requirements. We begin with it because it is a project which should be done early, and the rural sociologist, as a matter of convenience, may have to do it.

The care with which such a project should be carried through is exemplified by Professor R. L. Adams' study, the results of which are published under the bulletin title: *Seasonal Labor Requirements for California Crops*. Professor Adams goes into questions of seasonal requirements for specific crops, requirements for different operations in specific crop production and harvesting, requirements by counties, and total requirements by seasons of the year.

There is an opportunity in a study of hired labor requirements to develop a method of delineating areas according to characteristic requirements which, for convenience' sake, may be called *labor-use areas*. The basic information showing the number of man-days of regular and seasonal labor required per acre by crops and farms may be organized and used in marking off these areas according to their labor-use characteristics.

The *intensity* of labor requirements may be measured by calculating the total number of man-days of hired labor required per acre of crop land per year. With the use

of maps and cross-hatching, local areas may thus be defined and compared. *Seasonality* may be indicated by comparing the percentages of man-days of season labor with those of regular farm labor and defining areas accordingly. *Diversity* of requirements may be measured by calculating the numbers of man-days of seasonal labor required month by month throughout the year. This shows whether or not the requirements for seasonal labor change abruptly and greatly from month to month or, conversely, whether or not they run along more or less evenly. An area producing a number of special crops thus may register a fairly even demand for seasonal labor throughout the greater part of the year.

Labor-use areas may thus serve as a working concept in determining space patterns of labor requirements. They are useful also in the study of community areas especially in making analysis of factors which tend to delay or accelerate community integration.

A second project immediately suggests itself. It should receive only brief mention, since rural sociologists make wide use of this type of study. In relation to labor requirements this project should set forth the amount and nature of the labor supply. Studies by Landis, Brooks, and Reuss have accomplished the results desired in this sort of project in a very commendable manner. The object of this kind of project is to show the numbers, composition, characteristics, and location of the agricultural laborer population, to compare numbers of workers with requirements, and to show deficiencies and surpluses in the total picture of requirements and available man power. This type of study may well be expanded to include the entire population of given communities or areas, thus making it possible to mobilize the necessary information for a total community-wide appraisal of man power potentially available in times of extraordinary requirement, some of which under

ordinary circumstances would not be available for employment. Dr. Benedict has drawn attention to the need for this sort of community exploration. In view of the changing employment conditions throughout the nation, his point is even more pertinent now than it was when it was made some three years ago.

A comparison by communities of the location of farm laborers and the areas of high intensity in labor demand, especially if the requirements are highly seasonal, shows a rather striking lack of correspondence. To do this the laborer population is spotted on a map as of March 15 or April 1, a time of low ebb in labor requirements. It is believed that an approximation of more or less permanent residence is thus obtained for purposes of comparison with labor-use areas. Other factors than labor requirements apparently have much to do with the location of the laborer population. This point is sufficiently important to justify considerable study.

Another project which seems like an important segment of the general problem of getting agricultural labor when and where needed would be planned as *a study of employment as social participation*. A basic assumption in such a study would be that fact gathering and experimentation are necessary to an investigation of this kind and that they should proceed concurrently. Beginnings may be made on individual farming units, but eventually community participation will be needed in order to obtain more or less satisfactory results. The range of laborer participation in his job may extend from a mechanical performance of duties with a minimum attention to the care of equipment or livestock to quick, thorough, wholehearted performance together with minimum breakage and delay in the use of equipment and withal a bit of a flourish or "zip" in the doing of it. The employers' participation may range from a colorless, impersonal management to immediate,

interested supervision even to the extent of a strategic use of the idea of working side by side with the hired help in times of seasonal pressure and of delegating minor details of supervision to foremen.

In such a study one may follow the changes in the performance of individual laborers brought about by modifications in the laborer's relation to the farm setup—changes that for the time being are concerned, not with physical working conditions and wages, but with small person-to-person details and understandings.

It is only occasionally that the larger industrial concerns which carry on "efficiency" studies of many types hit upon some idea which illuminates a dark corner in employer-employee relationships. It is believed that because of the distinctive conditions of farm employment experimental studies carefully made might yield valuable practical results. Students of primitive societies and investigators of urban social pathology have used the concept of social participation to some advantage. Considerable work has been done in the measurement of participation in organized groups, schooling, use of radio, et cetera. But use of this concept as a frame of reference for the study of farm employment has been totally neglected, notwithstanding the evident need for some such attack upon this problem.

We now turn to another major problem, namely, that of the *living and living conditions* of farm laborers. Many investigators have worked in this general field, and farm laborers have received some small attention; but the major emphasis was upon the living of nonagricultural workers. American students of labor have for some time given occasional notice to the laborer's living, but Leschoier, Folsum, and Paul Taylor, among these, would be the first to insist upon our need to know more about the subject. Studies of the resources and earnings available for living

of Yaqui Indians, Papago Indians, Mexicans who do not speak English, et cetera, are badly needed.

In making such studies one must be prepared for results which may greatly differ from the current stereotypes on the subject. For example, Spicer says of the Yaquis in Pascua:

Cotton-picking stands apart from the other occupations not only in its seasonal character but also in wages and the conditions of labor. It has been said that the whole family engages in the work. A family of six makes from \$15 to \$30 weekly, depending upon the condition of the cotton and on the regularity with which they work. It is thus the most remunerative of all the occupations. . . . Sometimes a single family lives during the whole season in a small house or tent beside the ranch (farm) house, . . . more frequently a group of two or three families from Pascua occupy adjoining houses on the ranch some distance from the ranch house.

Obviously these results are at variance with popular notions, but farm operators know that they are substantially true of Mexican families and of many white American families who take advantage of the chance for total group employment, as well as of Yaquis. Farm operators also know that in general the rate per 100 pounds for picking is not so important in determining the wage as the worker's notion of how much he wants to earn by the day or for the week. This applies in the middle of the season when picking is at its best. Later, when cleaning up the last bolls, the rate affects the daily and weekly earnings. It takes a lot of picking then to go beyond 150 pounds short staple per man. Earlier, in good cotton, 300 pounds is not unusual. The ceiling is apparently set by current levels of living plus some degree of anticipation of future needs and is easily reached in the middle of the season, but not later on.

Still another project in this connection would trace the *relations between the family's ways of living and the organized life and activities of the community*. This type of

project is not intended to be only a counting of membership, et cetera, useful as that information may be. It is rather intended that the study should bring to light those variations in family community behavior which are associated with social factors. For example, the hypothesis that families take part in the organized life of the community on different planes or levels according to occupational or economic classifications may well constitute the frame of reference for the organization and execution of a project. From this it may be seen that the extent of institutional participation of the families of a given laborer population will more nearly approximate the participation of operators' families as the proportion of laborers' families in the community is reduced. Conversely, as the proportion of laborers is increased, the extent of institutional participation will be reduced for individual families, although earnings remain the same and even exceed those of families in the low labor community. If made with care, these comparisons between family community relations on different occupational and tenure levels will most likely yield significant results which indicate the operation of factors essentially social.

We now come to the problem of how the farm laborer fits into community system. Certainly, at once, it may be seen that *studies of community systems* may well be made under this heading. Around what ideas are different communities organized and how does the laborer fit into the picture? Spicer describes Leon Valencia's place in the village of Pascua and in the Tucson community. In the village his standing is doubtful because of his neglect to fulfill certain duties as member of a ceremonial society. This is true regardless of the fact that he owns the best house in the village and that he is a regular donor of food and money for fiestas and for the needy. Valencia's relation to the Tucson community economy explains his diffi-

culty. He is a hard, regular, dependable worker on a dairy farm, reputed in the Tucson community to be the best Yaqui in the village because "he works steady and doesn't even quit for Easter." So the Mexican and the Okie communities may be part of the larger California or Arizona community, but account must be taken of the differences in organization of ideas.

Another project with some promise of fruitful outcome might be built up around the study of *the organization of human effort in the community as determined by the principles of personal competition and status*. Some years ago Cooley made the significant observation that the only alternative to competition is status, popular coupling of the terms competition and cooperation as opposing terms notwithstanding. Cooley's point was that a person does a great deal of experimenting with different jobs and positions in order to find his place in the scheme of things and that his only alternative is to accept a place which has been assigned to him according to the principle of status. Status gives order and continuity to social relationships and serves to economize the energies of those who are responsible for keeping things going, but it tends to undermine initiative and kill personal ambition.

Ross has insisted that these principles should operate in relation to each other, that competition should not be allowed to keep a man always on tenterhooks, that after a period of testing he should be given the advantages of status as a sort of vantage point from which to launch further efforts in competition for the next grade.

May not a workable project be organized in which the farm laborer's position in the scheme of things on the farm and in various community situations will be studied, as determined by competition and by status? Certain aspects of this proposal may well be included as part of a project on employment as social participation, suggested above.

However, there are so many aspects of the community's life in regard to which these principles operate that a separate project will probably seem advisable.

As to possible outcomes I should mention the following:

1. An increase in understanding of problems of mutual concern to the farm operator and farm laborer when each views the other as a member of the same community;
2. An accumulation of data for the working out of practical programs looking to the improvement of laborers' living conditions;
3. A beginning in sound appraisal of the basic characteristics of the American social system as it operates on the community level and as it molds the everyday life of the farm laborer;
4. An appraisal of the farm laborer's influence upon the community and the American system itself as he puts the stamp of his behavior and ideals upon them.

OPEN COUNTRY NEIGHBORHOODS

J. ROY LEEVY
Purdue University

● This study was made for the purpose of ascertaining the socioeconomic character of open country neighborhoods in a representative rural county in Illinois. It was primarily suggested by the interest in late years in the study of open country neighborhoods in various sections of the United States, as represented in the main by a number of published studies bearing directly on neighborhood life among country people. A further reason for making this study arises from the writer's own personal interest and work in surveying the several rural schools in Clark County during recent years.¹

Scope of the study. A field schedule for the purpose of gathering information is one of the primary bases for the study, and an effort was made to encompass the whole county. A physical map of Clark County was carefully examined in order to ascertain the routes of travel and the most feasible way to divide the area of the county for the purpose of the investigation. The county was divided into four parts as nearly equal as possible, with a field supervisor assigned to each division.

A household schedule which contained a series of questions relating to the economic, social, political, and religious activities of farm people was drawn up. The field workers, assisted by the rural school teachers and pupils, interviewed the heads of 1,206 households, which comprised 86 per cent of the farm families living in this county.

A household was defined for the purpose of this study as a group of persons living together in the same dwelling

¹ J. Roy Leevy, *A Survey of the Rural Schools of Clark County, 1936.*

place on a farm. The persons constituting the group were not related as to kinship in all cases. Thus a farm hand, a servant, or a lodger was considered as a member of a farm family or farm household. This study was limited to that of a single county for administrative purposes, and because it is appreciated that factors conditioning these open country neighborhoods would in general be typical of open country neighborhoods in other counties of similar character throughout the state.

It was obvious that the county boundary line does not always determine the boundary line of all neighborhoods that lie on the edge of a county, for some neighborhoods extend over into other counties in this state and in adjoining states. Neighborhoods as they existed in the towns and villages of the county were not included in the study, even though some of them did involve a few farm families.

Description and topography of the county. Clark County is situated on the eastern border of Illinois about midway between Chicago and Cairo. The county has an area of 519 square miles, or approximately 331,000 acres of land. The surface of the land varies from level prairie land to rolling tableland. Most of the soil is fairly fertile and is used for the growing of grain and livestock. The northern part of the county is rich in oil deposits. Many oil wells have been drilled in this part of the county, and several are still producing large quantities of oil.

The county is divided into fifteen political townships, now under the township organization as to rural government. Each township has a supervisor, who is elected by the people for a four-year term. The several township supervisors constitute the county board, the legislative body of the county.

The data of Table I reveal the fact that the majority of the farmers live on gravel roads. Both the county and the township authorities are interested in road building.

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF NEIGHBORHOODS
WITH DIFFERENT TYPES OF ROADS

<i>Gravel</i>	<i>Per cent gravel</i>	<i>Concrete</i>	<i>Per cent concrete</i>	<i>Dirt</i>	<i>Per cent dirt</i>
80	84	7	7.2	10	9.2

The highways of the county are concrete, gravel, oiled, and dirt. The main highways of the county are either concrete or gravel.

The open country neighborhood. The open country neighborhood is defined as that group of people removed from a town center, living in proximity to one another and having two or more common interests which hold them together. It is a geographical area, but the boundaries of the area are somewhat indefinite. Each open country neighborhood has one or more institutions such as a church, a country store, or a school. The location of these institutions determines the neighborhood center.

The inhabitants of this county are in the main native born and are of the white race. There were only three Negroes in the county. There were no cities in this county; the largest town, the county seat Marshall, had a total population of 2,406 in 1930. The total population for the county was 17,872 and is fairly stable today. The average size of a farm family was 4.6 persons.

The most common rural institution serving as the neighborhood center in this county is the one-room elementary school. Seventy-eight per cent of the neighborhoods of this county center around the one-room school, whereas 2 per cent are centered around oil stations, 3 per cent around country stores, and 17 per cent around the rural church. The neighborhoods receive their names from the institutions located in them and from the topography

of the county. It was not uncommon to find such neighborhood names as "Possum Hollow," which old settlers informed the writer were named after the topography of the county; however, when the majority of the householders in a certain locality indicated the source for the name of a neighborhood, this was the name accepted by the writer. In all the replies on the family schedules, there were only 2.5 per cent of the householders who were not certain of the name of their particular neighborhood; at least 97.5 per cent of the families, according to their replies, were sure of their neighborhood's name.

Since the householders when interviewed indicated that they were proud to be identified with some locality name, it seems evident that the importance of the name of a neighborhood in Clark County means a great deal to the farmer who lives in the open country. It was not at all uncommon for the householder of a neighborhood to use the name of his particular neighborhood several times during the interview when he referred to the activities of his neighbors. The fact that the head of the family used the neighborhood name frequently indicated his consciousness that he belonged to a primary group.

A total of 97 open country neighborhoods were located by the writer and his assistants.

Typical neighborhood activities. Because of his interest in the life activities of the farmers and their families in the open country neighborhood, the writer studied their social, economic, and religious activities. As the political life of the county centers in the main around the county seat, the householders were not interviewed specifically about their political life; however, occasionally the farmer would indicate his political interests, especially when taxes, roads, or schools were mentioned by the interviewer. The social activity of farm families is presented in Table II.

TABLE II

SOCIAL ACTIVITY OF FARM FAMILIES
IN OPEN COUNTRY NEIGHBORHOODS

<i>Kind of planned activity</i>	<i>Number of neighborhoods</i>	<i>Per cent of neighborhoods</i>	<i>Activity for adults</i>	<i>Activity for children</i>
Sunday baseball	10	11	X	X
Softball	8	8	X	X
Fox hunting	4	3.7	X	X
Homecomings	21	22.4	X	X
Clubs				
Men's	13	14	X	
Women's	42	44	X	
Children's (4-H Club)	45	47		X
Literary and musical programs	9	9	X	X
Church leagues	4	3.8	X	X

Social activity which was not carried on in the open country neighborhood consisted of lodge membership and attendance for men and women. More men belonged to lodges than did women. The Odd Fellows Lodge had the greatest representation in case of the men, a total of 16 per cent of the fathers of farm families belonging to that organization. Membership in such clubs as Dairy Cattle and Poultry clubs ranged all the way from 11 to 14 per cent by the farmers. Seventeen per cent of the farmers belonged to the Farm Bureau organization, and 31 per cent of the boys and girls of the eligible age were members of the 4-H Club. It is obvious that these group organizations cut across neighborhood boundary lines. Such organizations as the Farm Bureau and Cattle and Poultry clubs are distinct economic organizations for the purpose of helping the farmer solve some of his economic problems. The writer does not mean that there is no social activity connected with such organizations; quite the opposite,

especially in the case of the Farm Bureau, which has an annual all-day picnic for the farmers and their families. These social gatherings are usually held at the county seat towns, and the farmers who are members attend for the full day. Various kinds of amusement are provided, such as: foot races, nail-driving contests, hog-calling contests, weight lifting, and many games.

One of the social activities of farm families is that of visiting other families. Most of the visiting occurred during the holiday season, as $66\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the farm families interviewed stated. This does not mean that farm families visited only those families that lived in their immediate neighborhood. In 30 per cent of the cases the visiting was outside the county entirely, and 10 per cent of the visits were within the immediate neighborhood. The length of visits varied from a few hours to 5 days, the greatest length of any one visit. In 20 per cent of the cases the entire family visited outside the county for a one-day period. The significant thing is that there is still considerable visiting among farm families, despite the fact that there are many modern creative comforts for the home. Transportation is greatly improved, so that farm families may visit no doubt more often than they did in days of dirt roads and the horse-drawn vehicle.

The religious life of these farm families is being centered in nine of the neighborhoods around the neighborhood church, but the rural church is rapidly declining in importance. In 1909 there were 43 rural churches in operation, while in 1938 there were only nine such churches in existence. The writer observed that the rural church seemed to be most prominent in those neighborhoods where land ownership was the highest. The writer does not imply that people who are not land owners are not active in church affairs—many tenant families in this county are; but they attend church, as do many land own-

ers, in the village churches. Good roads and the automobile have made this possible.

The economic relationships of farm families are significant from the standpoint of neighborliness. The economic relations of farm families are presented in Table III.

TABLE III
ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF FARM FAMILIES
IN OPEN COUNTRY NEIGHBORHOODS

<i>Economic activities</i>	<i>Number of neighborhoods having these activities</i>	<i>Per cent of neighborhoods having these activities</i>	<i>Number of neighborhoods not having these activities</i>	<i>Per cent of neighborhoods not having these activities</i>
Threshing rings	49	51	48	49
Butchering pigs	56	58	41	42
Exchange farm work	93	95	4	5
Lend farm implements	80	78	17	22
Run errands	55	57	42	43
Engage in cooperative civic projects	53	55	44	45

The data in Table III, indicating the economic relations of farm families, show that the exchange of farm work is the predominant activity. All the data indicate a very high degree of neighborliness on the part of farm families. The writer has made no attempt to differentiate between the economic activity of farm families as to threshing rings and the combine rings. In fact, he classified the combining of grain as threshing. These activities were not always confined to a single neighborhood, for the amount of grain produced in the neighborhood determined whether all the farmers living in a certain neighborhood belonged to one threshing ring. In seven of the threshing rings the farmers living in two or more neighborhoods constituted the membership in the threshing or combine ring.

One significant fact was the ownership of farm homes. In three neighborhoods 92 per cent of the farms were owned, operated, and lived upon by the owners. For the county as a whole farm tenantry is practiced very little. In the Jackson neighborhood 41 per cent of the farm operators were tenants. The farm population was found to be relatively stable, as indicated by 12 neighborhoods which had only 12 per cent of a change in farm ownership in the past five years.

Factors bringing about changes. One factor that seems to be bringing about a change in the social life of these farm families in the open country is the fact that many of the youth are attending high school in the towns and near-by cities. This has caused the social life of the family to be centered around the high school, whereas at one time much of it centered around the one-room elementary school in the open country neighborhood. There is still much social activity for the family centered around the one-room elementary school, such as the homecoming, the neighborhood literary and music clubs, and some adult education. However, the parents attend a movie, a class play, and agricultural and home economics extension lectures at the high school more often since a son or daughter attends high school. Some parents indicated that they had changed some of their trade services to the town where their children were attending high school. Most farmers had two or more trade centers anyway—that is, they trade at the small town for most of their food supplies and some clothing and some of their farm implements; but, when they buy a winter's supply of clothing or new furniture (especially electrical equipment) and market large quantities of livestock and grain, they trade at a larger trade center than any of the four trade centers in the county. The coming of the automobile and the gravel and concrete roads has made the farmer feel less and less the state of isolation.

Now, since the coming of rural electricity in this country, the farmer no doubt will increase his quantity of creative comforts such as electrical appliances.

The suggestive value of this study. The values derived from this study should not be taken too lightly. The writer proposes the following values: (1) The study reveals to the student of sociology the different bonds of unity found among farm families in rural neighborhoods; (2) it furnishes a basis for appraising some of the problems of the one-room elementary school; (3) as a systematic compilation and interpretation of data about rural people, it furnishes a basis for further studies of this nature. If we want to get a better understanding of human beings who make their living by living upon the soil, we need to study them in certain locality groupings, in contact with certain institutions such as the school and the church.

In the future, as open country neighborhoods continue to exist, life in them need not be eclipsed but may indeed become fuller and richer, and more appreciable as the farm people continue to be neighborly in their dealings with mankind. They are making adjustments to our ever-changing culture, and it is hoped they will continue to do so.

LABOR UNDER REVIEW

APRIL, 1940-APRIL, 1942

MELVIN J. VINCENT

The University of Southern California

● Bottlenecks in production for war, the imminence of inflation, gigantic tax increase proposals, strikes in defense and war industries—these are some of the major issues confronting the American public in this day of war. Of these, none has been more agitating to the average citizen than the last, for he has been told repeatedly that one of the major reasons for the collapse of France was its internal labor disputes. Many radio commentators, reporting upon the numerous strikes, succeed in giving the public the impression that the workers and the unions are guilty or that many union leaders are Hitlerian aides. Not too much is said about employers who are granitelike in their determination to forestall unionism, whatever the cost to the democratic cause. As a consequence, the public is very likely to see labor in the villain's role, and at present the Congress of the United States has in its lockers many bills designed to punish labor by destroying the gains given it by the New Deal.

Industrial strife is not new on the American scene. It had become intensified long before a second World War was deemed a possibility by a world that was still suffering from the aftermath of the first World War. That the strife was characterized by the individual's endeavor to get a job in an era of depression makes it nonetheless a struggle. Unemployment became a national problem. The Hoover administration sought to solve the problem by aiding industry with the setting up of a Reconstruction Finance Administration concern. Not enough help came

to labor through this. Then came the Roosevelt New Deal, and first aid was given to labor this time with the passage of the National Industrial Recovery Act, giving workers the right to make collective bargaining arrangements with their employers. It really bestowed a kind of national blessing upon organizations of workers. When the Act was nullified by the Supreme Court, the New Deal acted promptly by setting up in its place the Wagner Labor Relations Act, which reaffirmed the rights of the workers to organize and furthermore set up a National Labor Relations Board to see to it that they might organize as they saw fit. Almost immediately, industrial strife took on once more its collective aspects.

The struggle, however, was intensified not only by the usual opponents but also by an internal struggle in the ranks of labor. The American Federation of Labor found many of its members seceding to join the newly formed Congress of Industrial Organizations, which proceeded to unionize the great industrial fronts of steel and motors. Union membership began to grow in both organizations as the decisions of the National Labor Relations Board in favor of union collective bargaining became more and more numerous. The two union organizations grew more rivalrous despite favorable decisions, the A.F. of L. in particular coming to feel that the N.L.R.B. was favoring the C.I.O. There were signs for a time that the A.F. of L. was thinking of demanding changes in the Wagner Act. Employers had long been aroused over the decisions of the Board, and a few had even defied its findings. The administration of the New Deal, in the face of a so-called new little depression, again came to the aid of the workers by passing the Fair Labor Standards Act in 1938. This Act placed a ceiling upon working hours without additional pay and a floor under wages. Then, too, in the interim had been passed the Social Security Act, giving workers some

protection against the incidence of unemployment and old age.

In the fall of 1939 war broke out in Europe and industry began to recuperate. It did not take too long for the United States to express its sympathy in behalf of Britain and France. War orders from those countries began to pour in. After the fall of France, our sympathy with the British was extended, and soon the famous Lend-Lease program was launched. The cause of democracy was allied to British victory, and it was not long before President Roosevelt's phrase, "America, the arsenal of Democracy," was sweeping the country on to a boom in war production. As we drew nearer the conflict, we found ourselves preparing weapons not only for British use but for our own defense. Profits in the war industries increased, and with them, the cry for greater returns to labor grew louder. Strikes and more strikes filled the industrial scene, and the N.L.R.B. found itself unable to cope with the industrial disputes. The President had to create a new board to handle disputes in the defense industries. This board was called the National Defense Mediation Board and was composed of twelve members, four representing management, four labor, and four the general public.

As the Nazi triumphs grew apace, the United States became more and more alarmed over the numerous strikes that were taking place in the defense shops of the "arsenal of democracy." It may be of significant importance to attempt to trace the major happenings in the field of wartime industry from the spring of 1940, when it became most apparent that we were going to aid the Allied cause, down to the present, when we realize that we are one of the major parties in the war that started in 1939. The selected materials have been collected from radio news and commentators, newspaper dispatches, and magazine reports. They have been arranged chronologically and rep-

resent what seemed to the writer the highlights of the labor situation from April, 1940, through April, 1942.

APRIL, 1940.

The rumblings about N.L.R.B.'s attitude toward favoring the C.I.O. grow louder. Growing alarm felt about the C.I.O.'s being a nest of Communists.

A Congressional committee slashes the 1941 budget for N.L.R.B. from \$3,180,000 to \$2,843,000, and erases a research fund for \$45,000, headed by David Saposs.

General Motors' election for collective bargaining shows that 68% of employees in 48 plants choose the C.I.O. as its bargaining agent.

The United States Supreme Court upholds an order by the Secretary of Labor fixing minimum wage rates under the Walsh-Healey Act of 1936. "The government enjoys the unrestricted power . . . to fix the terms and conditions upon which it will make needed purchases."

MAY, 1940.

N.L.R.B. makes a report for the first quarter of 1940 showing:

1. A new high record of votes by employees against the established union organizations—about one third.

2. The C.I.O. captured more votes than either the A.F. of L. or the independent unions, but the gains were smaller than previous ones.

3. Independent unions were growing in favor.

4. The year 1939 had more man-days of idleness than 1938, but there were 159 fewer strikes. Idleness was due to both strikes and lockouts.

A *Fortune* poll shows that 58.9% of people replying are in favor of governmental regulation of unions.

JUNE, 1940.

The United States Supreme Court holds that the Sherman Act did not refer to strikes or other union activities as being in restraint of trade, but states that some activities of the unions might come under the Act if these could be shown to interfere with trade in interstate commerce.

NOVEMBER, 1940.

President Roosevelt appoints Dr. Harry A. Millis to succeed J. Warren Madden as Chairman of the N.L.R.B. The Board had been deadlocked since August.

DECEMBER, 1940.

John L. Lewis makes good his pre-election pledge to resign as President of the C.I.O. Philip Murray elected in his stead.

The United States Conciliation Service announces that 95% of the threatened strikes of the year 1940 had been settled through its services.

JANUARY, 1941.

National defense movement begins to get under way, and President Roosevelt sets up the Office of Production Management, with Sidney Hillman and William Knudsen as the chiefs.

FEBRUARY, 1941.

All doubts as to the constitutionality of the Fair Labor Standards Act are removed by a U.S. Supreme Court decision affirming the power of Congress to prevent shipment in interstate commerce of material produced under substandard working conditions as laid down by the Act.

MARCH, 1941.

O.P.M. called in to settle the great Lackawanna, N.Y., steel strike. Strike settled shortly after.

Henry Ford's River Rouge plant threatened with great strike over unionization efforts.

Great strike takes place at the Allis-Chalmers plant.

President Roosevelt creates the National Defense Mediation Board to handle disputes connected with defense industries. The steps outlined for a case to reach the Board are:

Conciliation Department of U.S. must first attempt settlement. If it fails, the Secretary of Labor is to certify the case before the N.D.M.B., which is to attempt to negotiate agreements or to afford the means for voluntary arbitration, and to make public the facts of the case.

APRIL, 1941.

Fight of unions for unionization of the defense industries grows apace, and labor begins to be threatened by Congressional action.

N.D.M.B. settles the Allis-Chalmers strike.

Henry Ford at long last agrees to negotiate with the unions as a result of a Supreme Court decision upholding a ruling of the N.L.R.B.

JUNE, 1941.

Every major automobile plant by this time has been organized by the C.I.O.

The A.F. of L. and the C.I.O. both claim to have about 5,000,000 members each.

Strikes continue to plague the aviation, soft coal, and logging industries.

The United States Army, on Presidential orders, takes over the plant of the American Aviation Company at Inglewood, California, at failure to settle a strike.

The southern coal operators sign for peace.

Henry Ford signs up for a union shop.

JULY, 1941.

Bills begin to pour into Congress to curb union activities, and threaten to jeopardize labor's gains under the New Deal.

The troops at Inglewood are withdrawn as an agreement with the unions is reached.

Tom Girdler, prominent "Little Steel" holdout against the Wagner Act, signs up with the C.I.O. for Republic Steel.

AUGUST, 1941.

President Roosevelt appoints a New Economic Defense Board, headed by Henry A. Wallace and the secretaries of State, Treasury, War, Navy, Agriculture, and Commerce and the Attorney General.

SEPTEMBER, 1941.

Charges of favoritism for closed shop idea brought against the N.D.M.B. by certain employing interests.

N.D.M.B. reports that it has up to this time settled all but 15 out of its 72 certified dispute cases.

OCTOBER, 1941.

President Roosevelt appoints Gerard Denis Reilly to membership on the N.L.R.B. with William Leiserson and Harry A. Millis.

Harlan County, Kentucky, at last gets peace in its coal mines after a quarter of a century of struggle and bloodshed.

NOVEMBER, 1941.

The government seizes another defense plant, this one at Bendix, New Jersey.

Many antistrike bills find their way into Congress.

DECEMBER, 1941.

Soft coal strike settled at last by a Special Arbitration Board, appointed by the President. The Board is composed of three members, Benjamin Fairless of the U.S. Steel Company, John R. Steelman of the U.S. Conciliation Service, and John L. Lewis. Mr. Lewis wins the decision.

Proposed railroad strike settled.

Pearl Harbor attacked on December 7.

JANUARY, 1942.

President Roosevelt dispenses with the services of the N.D.M.B. and creates in its place the National War Labor Board with William Hammatt Davis as chairman. With Mr. Davis, the Board has twelve members, four representing management, four labor, and four the public.

FEBRUARY, 1942.

Proposals are made for peace between the C.I.O. and the A.F. of L. John L. Lewis seems to have asked for it, but President Roosevelt asks the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O. to select a committee of six to consult with him on questions of labor in wartime work. Mr. Lewis was not placed on the committee.

President Roosevelt meets with Philip Murray of the C.I.O. and William Green of A.F. of L. to work out a joint labor policy statement.

MARCH, 1942.

Flare-up in Congress over the Fair Labor Standards Act. President Roosevelt tells the public that the law does not prevent men from working over 40 hours per week, but that, if they do, time and a half for overtime and double time for holidays and Sundays must be paid.

Department of Labor reports that 40% of the nation's war plants are operating 160 hours or more per week, and that the average work-hour week for workers is from 48 to 50.

C.I.O. and A.F. of L. leaders promise no more strikes in war industrial plants.

MARCH, 1942.

Donald Nelson tells labor that it should not demand double-time pay for Sundays and holidays, while Speaker of the House Rayburn states that workers should put in 48 hours of work before asking for time and a half.

Attorney General Thurman Arnold reported as being thwarted in his attempts to purge the A.F. of L. of racketeering, and charges labor with obstructing the nation's war efforts.

Employers still object to the idea of a closed shop, claiming that it is a monopolistic practice. (The A.F. of L. likes the closed shop idea, while the C.I.O. favors the union shop idea. In a closed union shop no one not belonging to the union may be employed; in the union

shop the employer may hire anyone, but upon entering employment the worker must join the union.)

A goodly-sized clamor is being made for the freezing of present open and closed shop conditions prevailing in war industrial plants. APRIL, 1942.

John L. Lewis reported as getting ready to launch a third labor organization.

Organized labor gets a chance to be heard on the radio, via N.B.C. The program is to be called "Labor for Victory," and both the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O. will appear on alternate weekly 15-minute programs.

Trouble looming up in the plants of General Motors, which refuses to renew agreement of 1941 with the C.I.O. The N.W.L.B. has been called in.

The House Naval Affairs Committee complies with President Roosevelt's wishes by killing the Smith-Vinson Bill, which would have placed curbs on labor and raised the basic work week from 40 to 48 hours.

The conclusions which may be drawn from the foregoing events and from general observations may be formulated somewhat as follows: (1) organized labor believes that it is entitled not only to share the advantages gained under the New Deal but also to share more in the huge profits now being accredited to the owners of the war industrial plants; (2) organized labor, judging from experience, senses that the critical wartime period offers an opportunity which may never come again to force the major industries to accept either permanent closed or union shop agreements, but, mindful of public opinion, would consent probably to a "freezing" of the gains thus far made; (3) the Congress of the United States will attempt to pass antistrike or restrictive labor legislation at any time it senses that public opinion will no longer condone strikes in wartime; (4) the Roosevelt administration is loath to give up its progressive labor policies but will endeavor to hold organized labor in check by strategic measures, and prefers to iron out the major difficulties

through consultation with the appointed representatives of organized labor; (5) majority public opinion is against strikes in this period, since these strikes (a) may be the direct cause of losing the war, (b) may be the result of sabotage, and, what is more significant, (c) may show that organized labor is manifesting a lack of consideration for the men in service who are serving at low rates of pay and endangering their lives; and (6) the public is far more apathetic to the huge profits made by the owners of war industries than to the struggle of labor for higher wages, which may or may not indicate that there is confidence in the ability of the government to tax the excessive profits out of existence, or that the attention of the public has been drawn more consistently to the strikes than to the profits.

SOCIAL VALUES OF THE CREDIT UNION

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE UNITED STATES

DAVID CROSBY

Juniata College

● The credit union originated in Germany about 1850 under the guidance and inspiration of its two separate leaders, Herman Schulze-Delitzsch and Frederick Raiffeisen. Based on the cooperative principles of the Rochdale Pioneers, Schulze-Delitzsch developed cooperative credit among the German tradesmen and urban workmen; Raiffeisen, among the German farmers. Both of these systems had their adoptions and modifications in European countries, but it is largely to Raiffeisen's plan of a small homogeneous association that the movement in North America today traces its origin.¹ Alphonse Desjardins brought the credit union to North America when he organized his first society in Levis, Quebec, in 1900. It remained, however, for Edward A. Filene, well-known philanthropist, to introduce the idea to the American people. From 1909, the date of the Massachusetts credit union law, the first of its kind in the United States, to 1921, credit union development had been largely limited to the New England states.

In 1921 the movement made its first attempt at national organization with the establishment of the Credit Union National Extension Bureau, under the joint leadership of Edward A. Filene and Roy F. Bergengren. During the period from 1921 to 1935, the Bureau succeeded in perfecting and popularizing the credit union in the United States and in procuring effective legislation in thirty-

¹ Roy F. Bergengren, *Cuna Emerges*, fourth edition (Madison, Wisconsin: Credit Union National Association, 1939), p. 13.

seven states and the District of Columbia. The Bureau was largely responsible for the enactment of the Federal Credit Union Law in 1934, which made possible credit union organization under desirable circumstances anywhere in the United States and its territorial possessions.

Another of its objectives was realized when the Bureau merged into the Credit Union National Association in 1935. Under the managership of Roy F. Bergengren, the Association guides the movement and educates the public in the further uses of cooperative credit. From its offices in Madison, Wisconsin, it is headquarters for over 9,000 credit unions with over two and a half million members. These members belong to three main organizational types of credit unions: associational, occupational, and residential. The movement is now moving into a new stage of development, that of union of all credit unions of Canada and the United States. This unites over 10,000 credit unions of North America.

The main values claimed for the credit union by the movement are its ability to foster thrift, to offer small-term credit at low rates of interest, and to educate its members in the elementary economics of finance. These and related social values are discussed in the following order: (1) thrift, (2) small-term credit, (3) education for democracy, (4) cooperative spirit, (5) democratic credit structure, and (6) international spirit.

1. *Thrift.* Thrift is built into the very foundations of the credit union. Before members can borrow they must save. Shares, the basis of membership, are purchasable by installments, usually twenty-five cents per week per share. Deposits, as such, are discouraged, but are accepted in this manner for the purchase of additional shares. Thus, of more value than mere thrift is the habit of thrift, or systematic saving. Thrift and savings afford a certain degree of security against the emergencies of everyday

life. As one credit union member put it, "You have that feeling of money in the bank." The credit union offers security in another sense, for financially it is as stable as any banking institution. "Statistically the credit union is about the safest thing in the world."² Its stability has been proved during the recent depression years.

2. *Small-term credit.* The main purpose of the credit union is to provide small-term credit at low rates of interest. It offers credit at lower interest rates than any of the small loan agencies. Of special value is the protection thus offered members against the "loan shark."

By providing small-term credit the credit union fosters another social value, that of increased spending power for the many, which in turn emphasizes consumption rather than production, and tends to lubricate the wheels of our economic structure. Today, credit unions in the United States have totaled assets of over 220 million dollars, and lend annually over 100 million dollars to members.³

Credit union bylaws stipulate that borrowing be restricted to "provident and productive reasons." This provision leads to intelligent buying; and, with ready cash on hand, members are relieved of the cost of purchasing on the installment plan. Indirectly, the credit union effects a balance between credit and savings, for successful credit union operation is dependent upon this balance. The credit union also tends to localize capital, inasmuch as members are the owners and users of credit union facilities.

Through a certain degree of economic independence the employee is relieved of financial worries, and he is enabled to do more efficient work and to enjoy better relations with his employer. All of these values aid in mak-

² A. J. App, "Teachers and Credit Unions," *Commonweal*, 26:542, October, 1937.

³ Roy F. Bergengren, *Credit Union North America* (Kingsport, Tennessee: Southern Publishers, Inc., 1940), p. 118.

ing a better home life for the credit union member and in building a better community in which to live.

3. *Education for democracy.* Successful cooperation is based on education; and, though this is perhaps less true of the credit union, education is nevertheless an important social value of the movement. Study groups are the first step in credit union organization, at which meetings members study the history, principles, and objectives of the credit union. Nor does education stop here, for membership meetings are held periodically, at which times current problems are brought up for discussion. Committees meet regularly, and in time many members are elected to one of these.

Members receive a basic economic education, for, as though in school, members obtain an understanding of economic matters and learn how to handle their own financial affairs.

Similarly, the credit union demands initiative. The average man must seek his own salvation, and of significance is this statement by Roy F. Bergengren:

The lesson it seems to me first in importance is the essential discovery that there are no supermen; that working people, men and women of small incomes, the great majority of people, must find their salvation within themselves.⁴

This value is not more clearly demonstrated than in Nova Scotia, where an entire new social life has been built by such men and women, and this movement has been founded on the credit union.⁵

Education in the credit union is of further social value, for it promotes leadership. Through various offices and committees, hitherto backward individuals find expres-

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁵ Gerald Richardson, *ABC of Cooperatives* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), pp. 263.

sion for their leadership capacity. The success of each credit union and of the entire movement is dependent upon its leaders and its ability to develop future leaders.

Desirable character traits are concomitants of credit union association. Self-initiative, self-discipline, self-respect, dependability, responsibility, honesty, sacrifice, and a remaking of new social values accompany association in the credit union. The most important collateral in the credit union is character.

The credit union is a training ground for democracy, but it is more than an expression of democracy in the economic sense, for it is essentially an organization of men and women. In the credit union each member has but one vote regardless of shareholdings. It is characterized by a spirit of equality, which does not distinguish between race, color, or creed. By virtue of the values ensuing from this educational process, the credit union trains for better citizenship, and it is the high character of citizenship that makes democracy work.

4. *Cooperative spirit.* Prince Kropkin's concept of mutual aid and Emory S. Bogardus's "fifth wish" describe the cooperative motivation inherent in the credit union. This spirit is first found in group awareness and group interest. The relationships of the associational and residential types of credit unions are those of intimateness, sympathy, and community of purpose. The occupational type of credit union is less a primary group; but all promote a group awareness and group interest, which in turn are expressed in an enlarged social vision. Through the credit union the members become conscious of their fellow workmen and neighbors. The individual world is enlarged to include others.

As a result of the credit union, this cooperative spirit is carried into the employer-employee relationships. A Y.M.C.A. official interviewed said:

Through the credit union we have a relationship by which the employee may come and tell us of his troubles; about sickness in his family, or bills hanging over his head—and we can help him materially; not with just talk, but with real money. And by this closer relationship we have been able to build a closer cooperative feeling. In some places of business the personal relationship is on the basis of slavery; the personality means nothing there. But here we try to break down the social distance, and we have succeeded because we have more to offer the employee.⁶

The credit union makes Christianity practical. As one credit union member said, "It is in accordance with Christian principles of cooperativeness. It makes Christianity work in the field of economics." "The main objective of the credit union is to substantially improve the economic condition of the people who work for a living,"⁷ and with this purpose the credit union is well adaptable to the program of the church.

One of the more important social values of the credit union, and as yet one of the least realized, is its use as a preamble to further cooperative endeavor. Occupation as a basis for credit unions has not been a sufficiently binding tie to foster further cooperative building. What has been accomplished in the United States in this line has been done by associational and residential types of credit unions. It has been the Maritime Provinces of Canada, and particularly Nova Scotia, stimulated by the adult education program of the St. Francis Xavier University of Antigonish, Nova Scotia, where the credit union has become the foundation for a completely cooperative society. From the credit union have been built cooperative stores, health societies, producer and marketing cooperatives, and cooperative houses.

5. *Democratic credit structure.* The credit union is the people's bank. It is owned and managed by its mem-

⁶ Personal interview with a Y.M.C.A. official, an officer in a Y.M.C.A. employee's credit union.

⁷ *Suggestions for Educational Committees of Federal Credit Unions*, Circular No. 23 (Washington: Farm Credit Administration, 1939), p. 2.

bers. The feeling of mutual honor, the simplicity with which business is handled, the confidence of members in the credit union—all make for a democratic credit structure. Formality and “red tape” are absent in credit union transactions. As the manager of a large municipal employees’ credit union put it:

Always we have tried to make our member a friend and not just a borrower. The laborer is afraid to go to a bank and look across a marble desk at some disinterested banker. Here he feels he’s among friends.⁸

Credit union transactions are made quickly. If it is to fulfill its value in emergencies, speed in transaction is necessary. Because of its informal atmosphere, the member has full confidence in his credit union. Bad loans are few, and business is of the highest ethics and efficiency.

The credit union thus reconciles finance with the spirit of democracy, and as such it offers a challenge to “capital.” “If we use the title of credit union,” said one credit union officer, “we must work to serve.”

6. *International spirit.* Credit unions and other forms of cooperatives cannot guarantee peace, but they are an aid to peace in setting democratic examples. The credit union is neutral in race, religion, and politics. It promotes an international spirit. Credit unions now extend from Alaska to California, and from Newfoundland to Florida. A union of all North American credit unions into one association would serve to further de-emphasize national interests, and would be a step toward “the catholicity of the cooperative movement.”

Conclusions. The ability to foster these social values varies with individual credit unions. The Credit Union National Association calls for 60,000 credit unions in the United States to meet the requirements of 80,000,000 needy people. Even at the present rate of obtaining five

⁸ Personal interview with a manager of a municipal employees’ credit union.

to six thousand new credit union members weekly, the program appears slow in growth. The major problem is that of education. Millions of needy borrowers are ready for such a financial institution as the credit union. The Credit Union National Association and the Credit Union Section of the Farm Credit Administration have their own promoters in the field, organizing credit unions. The result of this, it appeared to the writer in those credit unions observed, was that credit unions which are "promoted" lack a full cooperative spirit. There, financial considerations are the chief motivating forces. Federal credit unions are increasingly popular with occupational groups, but these are usually large and relationships are often casual. Rather does the small credit union foster the true cooperative relationship. Residential communities, both urban and rural, need exploration, where through education, with emphasis on further cooperative building, credit unions can become a potent socializing force. The coal mining sections of the East and the poor farming areas of the South are well adapted to such a program. The church is an ideal starting point. Much is to be learned from the cooperative movement in Nova Scotia, where education has been a "learning by doing" type. The road ahead is uncertain, except that credit unions will grow, but the direction of that growth is all important.

TOWARD IMPROVED WORLD RELATIONS

THIRTY WAR AND PEACE GOALS

EMORY S. BOGARDUS

The University of Southern California

● In a recent statement the writer attempted to show how war and peace aims are intertwined and how peace conditions are determined largely during the progress of war.¹ The following war and peace goals cannot all be achieved at once. It may take decades to realize some of them, but the statement of these long-term aims gives a sense of direction now which is better than going in circles. This sense of direction is essential in building soldier and civilian morale.

The thirty points fall under five headings: (1) international control, (2) economic adjustment, (3) ethical and religious motivation, (4) social and psychical needs, and (5) educational procedures. They are submitted in no final way but as points to be revised and improved.²

I. INTERNATIONAL CONTROL

1. *The Development of a Federation of Nations.* The present Twenty-eight United Nations will perfect a world organization to be known as a Federation of Nations and admit other nations as soon as they accept the democratic principles governing the Federation. Peoples of enemy countries will be admitted after a probationary period during which they act in good faith in their rela-

¹ "War Aims," *Sociology and Social Research*, 26:460-64 (May-June, 1942).

² The writer is indebted to a number of his colleagues on the faculty of The University of Southern California for valuable suggestions, for example, to Professors J. Eugene Harley, Adamantios Polyzoides, Clarence M. Case, Martin H. Neumeyer, John E. Nordskog, Leon H. Ellis, John M. Pfiffner, Herbert L. Searles, Walter G. Muelder, Roy Malcolm, Clayton D. Carus.

tions with the member-nations. The Federation will afford an increasing degree of security to the member-nations, and in turn will receive from them an increasing degree of authority or sovereignty based upon a desire for security by the nations. (a) The nations will release some of their rights to the Federation for their own protection; for example, they will limit all in their rights to make war upon any of the others, they will limit all against fomenting ill will toward the Federation or any of the sister nations, they will limit all in exploiting weaker people, they will require all to use the peace-making and adjudicating machinery of the world organization. (b) The work of the Federation will be conducted by an Assembly meeting annually, an executive committee or Council meeting continually, special bodies or commissions, a permanent court, and a secretariat.

2. *A Permanent Court of International Justice.* The Court will retain about as they are now the main features of the Permanent Court already in operation. (a) Specific sanctions will be set up beforehand for particular offenses by any nation, and graded steps will lead up to full application of sanctions. (b) A growing body of international laws accepted and respected by all member-states will be developed by the Commonwealth, beginning with those laws already generally observed by the democratically minded United Nations.

3. *An International Police Force.* An international police force will be created to be composed in part of permanent land, sea, and air forces of the Federation and in part of quota units of each member-nation to be called on at the discretion of the Federation. (a) A gradual disarmament of nations on a pro rata basis will follow the increasing security provided by the Federation. (b) Present enemy nations will be disarmed, and order will be maintained by a minimum international police force.

4. *A Commonwealth Civil Service.* This Service will provide a roster from which appointments of members of the Federation's commissions and of managerial experts on the Federation's staffs will be made.

5. *Independence of Small Nations.* Small nations will have needed protection under Federation commissions.

6. *Nation-Status for Selected Colonies.* Under given qualifications such as evidence of self-government ability and of general desire for self-government certain colonies may be selected by the Council of the Federation and be given opportunity over a period of time to achieve nation status under the direction of a Federation Commission.

II. ECONOMIC ADJUSTMENT

7. *Reduction of Tariffs and Increase of Free Trade Areas.* Tariffs will be gradually reduced and free trade areas between different nations will be gradually increased, beginning with free trade agreements between the United States and Great Britain. International control of trade relations between nations will be observed.

8. *A Commonwealth Bank.* A bank of the Federation will be established. It will develop its own currency and have control over national exchange rates. National currencies will be pegged to Federation's currency.³

9. *Raw Materials.* The availability of raw materials to all peoples will be promoted, taking into consideration the economic interests of the nations within whose boundaries such raw materials now exist and also the world-wide need for conservation of all these natural resources.

10. *A Consumer-Producer Economy.* A consumer-producer economy of free enterprise, individual ownership, and economic plenty will be developed along the lines achieved in such countries as Sweden and Great

³ Suggested by C. D. Carus.

Britain, and in certain areas of the United States and of all other countries of the present United Nations. The universal consumer and his needs will have major consideration in determining production and distribution of economic goods. Regionalism will have consideration in developing a world economy.

11. *Price Determination.* The principle will be favored of determining prices at those points which will guarantee "an equivalent standard of life for both consumer and producer." A Federation Commission will conduct research studies for the nations in determining these "equivalent standards of living" and particularly for goods involved in international business.

12. *Reducing Extreme Economic Inequalities.* The principle will be followed of leveling up economic opportunities of the nations. (a) Distinctions between "have" and "have not" nations will be reduced to the end that all may have plenty. (b) Within nations democratic practices will be encouraged by the Federation so that popular interest in democracy will increase and reactions to totalitarianism will become unfavorable. These procedures will involve: measures for extending private ownership, measures favoring ceilings and floors for wages and incomes, measures for promoting employment and lessening employment insecurity, and other measures that will reduce the extremes of wealth and poverty and class inequalities.

III. ETHICAL AND RELIGIOUS MOTIVATION

13. *Social Responsibility of Nations and Persons.* The goal will be sought of making the social responsibility of nations and persons proportionate to the economic power they possess. A world-centered national philosophy and an others-centered personal philosophy will be promoted.

14. *Moral Integrity of Nations and Persons.* The moral integrity and responsibility of nations will be made a basic tenet of the Federation. Measures will be kept in operation for the continual appreciation of moral values.

15. *Ecumenical Religion.* Ecumenical religious ideas will be favored. Religious activities that converge across denominational and national barriers will be furthered.

16. *Religious Faith.* Religious faith on rational levels will receive continual support. The belief in a Higher Power will be given a fundamental place in the orienting of moral values.

IV. SOCIAL AND PSYCHICAL NEEDS

17. *World Morale Based on Common Interests.* A world-wide morale will be built on the common interests among all peoples rather than on their differences. All nations will be encouraged to set their attention on their common problems, such as meeting the universal needs for health, housing, livelihood, moral and spiritual invigoration.

18. *Internationalized Systems of Communication.* The avenues of communication between nations will be kept open, free from misleading propaganda, and under Federation control. (a) International radio programs will be subject to approval by a Federation Commission. (b) International motion pictures will be developed by a Federation Commission, and motion pictures produced in one country and shown in another will be subject to approval by this commission. (c) A world press, sponsored by a Federation Commission with regional editions, will foster international understanding.

19. *Coordinating of Diverse Cultures.* A coordinating of diverse cultures will be undertaken, and at the same time the growth of various cultures will be aided. One of

the present widely used languages will probably become the major world language.

20. *Travel between Nations.* Travel between nations will be freed from unnecessary customs inspections and other delays at national boundaries. This freedom will be developed first between English-speaking nations, following the procedure long in practice between the United States and Canada.

21. *Migration between Countries.* Migration between countries will be regulated by a Federation Commission acting in conjunction with the proper national commissions on migration. (a) Overpopulation problems of any nation will be made the subject of joint study and agreement of joint Federation-National commissions. (b) Underpopulation needs of any country will be treated similarly. (c) Transference of minority groups who wish to return to the country of birth will be assisted under the direction of the Federation Commission after the manner, for example, that was practiced a few years ago by Greece and Turkey. (d) Fair and democratic treatment of races and other minority groups will be advocated and supported by the Federation, and people will be educated to appreciate the best potentialities of each minority people. (e) Naturalization in all countries will be simplified under a Federation Commission.

22. *Welfare Interests of Labor.* The activities of the present International Labor Office will be enlarged and extended in order to improve the working conditions of people in all countries so that a sense of security may be provided to all who labor.

23. *Welfare and Rehabilitation.* Worth of personality and welfare of all peoples will receive equal attention. (a) International welfare programs relating to health problems including the narcotic problem will be worked out and put into effect on a world-wide basis. (b)

The rehabilitation of peoples in areas stricken by famine, war, or other catastrophes will receive Federation aid wherever needed.

24. *Gradual Social Change.* Gradual, not sudden or violent, social change will be developed. Large-scale planning for human welfare on both world-wide and regional bases will be carried on by a Federation Commission. Changes are to be accepted democratically by peoples concerned. Changes are to wait where necessary on the education of people to appreciate and sustain such changes.

25. *Public Opinion and Peace.* An enlightened public opinion will be developed in all democratic countries, which will direct that peace be inaugurated and maintained on permanent world-wide practices of fair play and justice.

26. *Public Opinion and Knowledge.* Public opinion will be developed in all parts of the Federation on the basis of knowledge and objective viewpoints. Public opinion based on fear, hate, and intolerance will be discouraged. It will not be fostered in terms of destructive crowd or mob psychology.

V. EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURES

27. *Socially Minded Education.* Education in all countries will put foremost the procedures and principles of "how to live together well." Individual pecuniary success, getting ahead at the expense of the other fellow, and destructive corporative competition and greed will be subordinated.

28. *A World Program of Education.* A world-wide program of education will be developed by a Federation Commission and taught in all countries. Well-located international universities will be developed by the Federation. Exchange of students and instructors between nations will be systematically and universally encouraged.

29. *Organization of Democratic Forces.* The organization and efficiency of democratic forces will be stimulated by a world-wide educational program. (a) Education will improve its techniques for submerging bureaucracy to democracy and "politics" to statesmanship. (b) Local discussion groups and other informal adult education procedures for considering the problems of living together well will be stimulated everywhere.

30. *World Citizenship.* World citizenship will be added to national citizenship, the same as the latter has been added to provincial and local community citizenship in all countries. People everywhere will study the problems as faced by the World Federation and vote for national representatives to the Assembly and Council of the World Federation.

THE WORLD VIEWED SOCIOLOGICALLY—IV

JOHN ERIC NORDSKOG

The University of Southern California

● IS THIS A WAR of ideologies? The Axis powers are essentially fascist, although Germany, Italy, and Japan have national variants of that philosophy. For all three, however, the essence is economic nationalism, militarism, and imperialism. They may claim to be revolutionary in program, but the ultimate aim is conquest and exploitation. All three are ruled through dictatorship of a totalitarian nature. On the other hand, the United Nations include countries that are democratic in their avowed ideology, whether in America or in Europe, and others that are governed by dictatorship. Greece was a dictatorship, but we aided her against the Axis. Russia is under dictatorship, is totalitarian, and is under a communistic ideology (although the country has at no time reached anything like a communistic order of life); yet we team up with Russia against our common enemy, the Axis. In South America several nations have been experimenting with socialistic measures and dictatorship—for instance, Uruguay and Brazil—and the sympathies of Argentina and Chile are vital. China faces a struggle between forces for a democratic or a communistic future. For none of the countries of the world will a maintenance of the *status quo* be possible after the war. The values of the several leading social reform ideologies will, of course, have to be taken into account in postwar readjustments. Nevertheless, the struggle is fundamentally not democracy versus socialism, communism, or fascism; it is rather a struggle of war versus peace. Whatever there will be of revolutionary change after the war, it will have to build on the ideology of peace, or there will be no peace.

ARE WE WINNING the battle of transportation? The toll of the Nazi submarines in the west Atlantic now exceeds four hundred vessels. If our production of ships cannot keep up with such a loss, and if our defense against "pig boats" is not equal to the need, the suggestion by Henry J. Kaiser, that we build thousands of mammoth freight planes to ferry soldiers and supplies across the oceans, may offer a practical solution. If there are unsurmountable obstacles to the production of planes designed by Mr. Kaiser, there are other large planes already under construction which could be utilized. We live in an age of speed, and aerial transportation would make submarine warfare almost obsolete for boycotting America, the arsenal of democracy. Airlines used in warfare have already been tested in favor of the United Nations. The Pan American has a 4,300-mile African airway which is invaluable for maintaining contact with the East, and China's flying freighters across the Himalayas—an American line under the able command of Col. Caleb V. Haynes—provide a substitute for the Burma Road. Such lines can and do carry millions of pounds of freight within a short time to destinations that would otherwise be inaccessible, and they have also rescued thousands of soldiers and civilians from capture, torture, and death. By all means, let us have a flotilla of the air for transportation on a grand scale, not only for bombing. It is a far cry from the days of Genghis Khan and Tamerlane, whose armies, while crossing continental areas, carried supplies and meat—on the hoof; but then, as now, transportation was a principal factor in warfare.

DOES THE PLEA for *Lebensraum* (living space) justify war? So the Axis nations claim. In fact, however, emigration from Germany, Italy, and Japan, to their respective foreign colonies, was comparatively negligible before World War I, and the policy has not changed much since

then. Japan, for instance, did not find Korea tempting for migration. Manchukuo has attracted many more millions of Chinese than of Japanese immigrants, although that country became subject to Japanese military and puppet government. What the Japanese people want in Korea and Manchukuo and in other subordinate areas is control over the economic life of the people conquered. If a million people a year were to emigrate from Japan, it would not make a dent on the population of Japan itself; nor would emigration from Germany or Italy, in similar proportion, make any difference in their population problem. The reason for this is simple: the population of the world is, in general, adjusted numerically according to the economic way of life now pursued in the various continental areas of the earth. Peoples who have gone through centuries of natural selection, enabling them to live under certain climatic and geographical influences, cannot be shifted to utterly different regions without catastrophe. European, American, and Oriental civilizations could not endure in the Amazon, Congo, or Eskimo regions. Everywhere, people build civilizations according to their habitat, unless similarity in environment enables them to carry their mode of life with them. Limitations incident to overcrowding of populations may be real in some respects, but, as Malthus pointed out long ago, emigration will not solve the problem.

The Nazis have deported many thousands of their victims to other countries in Europe. Some sixty thousand persons were recently forced out of Holland into Poland, and there have been not a few similar incidents. There is nothing new in such tactics; such a policy of deportation was inaugurated by Tiglath-Pileser III of ancient Assyria in order to break the spirit of peoples victimized by his conquests, and some of his successors continued the practice. Centuries earlier, populations were shifted from

home to home in ancient Egypt. Forced migrations of this kind will not provide living space in our own age, but will create grave problems for the future. The limitations of Mother Earth have defeated many a politician and many a general.

MANCHUKUO has served Japan well as a laboratory of total warfare. It has been a convenient training ground for fighting men, imperial exploiters, and rulers. Manchukuo is one of the richest regions taken over by Japan, and with its factories, railways, mines, and agricultural resources, it stands as a dynamic threat to Russia. The Japanese, under the stimulus and leadership of General Itagaki, who is master of the huge Kwantung army, aim to control Siberia and Russian Asia. It is common knowledge that the Japanese have an army along a fifteen-hundred-mile front ready to attack Russia at a moment's notice. That such an attack has been delayed indicates that a Russian army is waiting on the other side of the line, ready for self-defense. When the United Nations introduce their "second front" against the Nazis in Europe, we can expect the Japanese to move into Russia, or to attempt such a move. It may be, of course, that the Russians will take the offensive. Rest assured, the Battle of Russia will soon have a new phase—that against the Japanese. If Itagaki's army fails, there will be only one way for him to save face. His soldiers once stopped him from the act of hara-kiri after losing a battle that would be insignificant in comparison with this new venture.

GANDHI apparently is using the present emergency to force independence for India. His game of politics makes him in a sense an ally of the Axis powers. His policy at the present writing alienates the sympathy of many people in Great Britain and the United States, and perhaps of the United Nations in general. Gandhi's policy and philoso-

phy of passive resistance has aroused great interest during several years of struggle for Indian independence and equality among the nations of the world, but, when the free nations have to fight to maintain their own freedom, it may develop that India will have to earn her freedom through cooperative participation in the struggle. The United Nations may not favor a policy of handing out the gains of the war to those who do nothing.

Passive resistance against the Japanese or the Nazis, who are organized killers, would, at least in a short view of affairs, be futile for India. Given the long view—generations or centuries—the people of India may conquer the conquerors by means of Gandhi's technique, but the suffering of those who undertake a passive struggle against enslavement by the Axis nations would be immeasurable. For many millions of the population of India, however, the conditions of life are so abject that they could scarcely become worse, whatever conquerors may march over the land and control production and distribution. Unless Gandhi's leadership eventually brings to India an improvement in living conditions for the masses, what has India to gain by following him?

SOCIAL RESEARCH

DIMENSIONS OF SOCIETY. A Quantitative Systematics for the Social Sciences. By STUART C. DODD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, pp. 944.

An adequate review of this book would require several times the space that is here available. In a succinct statement of his "S-Theory" the author requires over 100 pages and for an explanation of the four "sectors" of the "S-Theory" a total of 700 pages. Moreover, a comprehensive review would require a preliminary discussion of Lundberg's *Foundations of Sociology*, for upon the latter work the former rests in some of its major theoretical aspects.

Although the subtitle includes all the social sciences in its scope, the introductory chapter limits the author's scope, for he aims "to begin constructing a quantitative systematic science of sociology." However, if he is on the right road, he has gone much farther than a beginning; he has accomplished the hard part of the whole task. But not all will agree that he is on the main highway to a quantitative systematics of sociology, and others will feel that a tremendous amount of skillful work has not produced the results that so much capable effort might be expected to obtain.

In fairness to the author, his S-theory may well be presented for what it aims to be, namely, a study in the quantitative phases of sociology. Whether or not quantitative sociology is the whole story of sociology may well be argued elsewhere.

The author studies "any orderly set of societal data" and refers to it as an "S-situation." His S-theory reduces any social situation to a combination of indices of space, of population, of time, and of characteristics. These are the dimensions of society. The first three sectors may be accepted without quibbling; but the fourth sector, "characteristics" of people, or of their environments, is so inclusive and varied and miscellaneous that it would seem to require further refinement.

The S-theory presents the four sectors of social situations in terms of exponents and three other scripts, which give basic expressions of these social situations. The exponents and other scripts indicate classes, class-intervals, and cases illustrating the indices. The results are connected by the four signs of adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing, and by four symbols indicating the processes of aggregating, cross-classifying, correlating, and identifying. The final result is sixteen basic conceptions of social situations.

A large number of social situations have been analyzed by the author and reduced to the terms of his S-theory. Other persons using the same technique and the same situations arrive at the same symbolic results. The product in each case is a kind of scientific, symbolic shorthand presented algebraically. The ingeniousness of the procedures and of the quantified symbolisms is highly intriguing to anyone who is mathematically inclined.

Nowhere is any predictive value of control value claimed for the S-theory, and yet it is wholly scientific in nature. How does it happen that so stringent a scientific process of systematization yields so little of predictive or control value? Either the system is incomplete or inadequate or sociology is sterile. Either the system leads into a scientific bypath or sociology cannot become scientific in the predictive and control sense. Perhaps the difficulty is in the attempt to quantify social situations and personality when the dynamic essence of these phenomena partially elude quantification methods thus far discovered.

E.S.B.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF WAR ON CITIZEN AND SOLDIER.

By R. D. GILLESPIE. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1942, pp. 243.

The main purpose of this book, according to the publishers, is "to gather the lessons of experience from those who have endured the ordeals of modern war so that we may know what we have to meet and how to meet it." Dr. Gillespie, formerly Chief Physician in Psychological Medicine at Guy's Hospital, London, and now Psychiatric Specialist with the R.A.F., seems eminently qualified to present the psychological effects of war. As background for his discussion, the author traces the development of modern concepts regarding psychoneuroses through their evolutionary stages, and sets forth constitutional and social factors related to psychoneurotic behavior.

"The relative rarity of pathological mental disturbances among the civilians exposed to air raids" is stated as one of the most striking things about the civilian population during the war. The disorganization of family life, plus the curtailment or absence of organized occupations and recreation, has, of course, resulted in many problems, of which the most serious is probably the increase in juvenile delinquency. Children were found to adapt themselves more readily to new persons and new environments than had been generally expected. It is now realized that many problems of evacuated children might have been met by educational preparation of the billet mothers. "What has been particularly brought out

by the war experience is the value of psychiatrically trained social workers. A demand for their services as well as for psychiatrists has sprung up in districts where their employment was never before contemplated by the local authorities."

Among the fighting forces psychoneuroses were often found to be related to pre-existing difficulties. The author states that probably between one half and two thirds of those who break down under active service conditions are "predisposed" people, and that many of these might have been detected on enlistment. He believes that the correct place for the psychiatric specialist is at the early stages of recruitment and training, that there should be a psychiatrist available to the recruiting board or sitting as a member of the board, and that such a specialist should also be attached to each large training center.

The last chapters are on morale and human relationships in the post-war world, developing the idea that the war "has not only stimulated thought but prodded the consciences of many people in many directions." Communities have developed patterns of cooperation in the war, and the question is posed as to "how we can perpetuate this in some cognate form" after the war is ended.

RUBY STRAND INLOW

SOCIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION. By JOSEPH S. ROUCEK and Associates. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1942, pp. x+771.

Taking the point of view that educational sociology is "primarily sociology related to the whole problem of education," the coauthors of this book have undertaken to contribute by means of a series of related essays an evaluation of sociological knowledge for educational utility. Since sociology as a scientific study is endeavoring to discover something about human behavior and has been able to reveal a good deal of knowledge about social relationships, it is evident that there is a genuine need for an educational sociology. Sociologists pointed this out long ago, but educators continue to ignore the work of the sociologists insofar as application is concerned. In general, most of the educators are concerned primarily with the learning processes and pedagogy, despite the recognition by definition of the term education and its chief purpose, fitting the student for social living. An excellent and forceful attempt is made here to show that education "must be in touch with the real conditions of the social life of which it is a part." The educator and the sociologist should cooperate and know and understand each other.

The two main divisions of the book are entitled "Basic Elements in Social and Educational Processes" and "Education and Social Control."

These are supplemented by a concluding part dealing with the trends in educational sociology. Full recognition is taken of the work and ideals of the educational agencies outside the school. There are some very worthwhile essays on the social and educational significance of play and art, on education for war and peace, and on marriage and family education. Unfortunately, there is a lack of recognition of a great many sociological articles previously written on some of the very topics discussed, articles which have incorporated some recent research findings. However, the book as a whole is commendable, and the discussion by Professor Roucek on the essence of educational sociology is valuable.

M.J.V.

SOCIAL WELFARE

CHINA BUILDS FOR DEMOCRACY, A Story of Cooperative Industry. By NYM WALES (MRS. EDGAR SNOW). New York: Modern Age Books, Inc., 1941, pp. xv+310.

The author reviews the remarkable growth of the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives since their inception in 1938 in all their major aspects. No important phase appears to have been omitted. Both facts and theory are given and some degree of prophecy is offered. The genesis of CIC, or Indusco, the trade name, the role of Rewi Alley and his persistence, the three lines of cooperative units in China, the financial problems, the educational needs, the relation to winning the war, the connection with a new economic China after the war is over, the role in emancipating women, and the friends and supporters—these are some of the subjects that are handled straightforwardly and hopefully.

The author contends that China teaches the world how to build in the midst of war. CIC is one of the few creative movements in the world today. It strengthens democracy wherever opportunity affords. The cooperative way of economic enterprise may even prevent "a civil war between the Right and the Left in China." Its development in China has aroused considerable interest in India and stimulated the Philippines to enter in 1940 upon plans for a producer-consumer society. Australia and New Zealand also are being affected by the growth of the CIC. Hence, China even in wartime is making a notable contribution to the new Far East and perhaps to the world. Further organization of the materials, deeper analysis of cooperative theory particularly in relation to the connection between the CIC and consumers' cooperatives, and an index are among the items that may be considered when a revised edition is undertaken.

E.S.B.

RADIO IN THE CLASSROOM. *Experimental Studies in the Production and Classroom Use of Lessons Broadcast by Radio.* By A. S. BARR, H. L. EWBANK, and T. C. MCCORMICK. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1942, pp. x+203.

The Wisconsin Research Project in School Broadcasting was supported by a subsidy from the General Education Board. The several series of broadcasts dealt with Journeys in Music Land, Afield with Ranger Mac (nature study), Neighbors Round the World (geography), Community Living (social studies), English As You Like It, Good Books, and Good Speech. These were arranged to fit into the curriculum programs of the Wisconsin schools. Efforts were made to measure the results. The home, the way the community serves the people, how the state and national governments serve, making a living in the community, social and political groups in the community, and your community and the world were some of the subjects of the social studies series. Each of the series centered around a common theme designed to develop interests, appreciations, and attitudes. Functional information was supplied as the basis of these objectives.

M.H.N.

DISORGANIZATION: PERSONAL AND SOCIAL. By ERNEST R. MOWRER. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942, pp. ix+682.

The great majority of chapters deal in one way or another with personal disorganization. The unadjusted personality, the juvenile delinquent, the adult delinquent, the alcoholic, the sexual variant, the rebel, the innovator, the suicide—these are some of the major topics. Social organization is treated in its larger aspects, but the emphasis is on the social phases of personal disorganization. However, family disorganization constitutes an exception and is handled well. The basic pattern of personal disorganization is defined in terms of a series of types that constitute "a continuous progression from active rebellion against the social order directed toward various socially and hedonistically defined goals, to the complete retreat into an inner world in which the rebellion is subjectively expressed." Moreover, a person becomes disorganized to the degree that his attempts at mastery of his social circumstances fail to secure social approval. Social disorganization is "the collective aspect of personal disorganization," but this explanation is incomplete. The analysis of personal disorganization is superbly done sociologically. Many ecological maps of Chicago are introduced to excellent advantage. The author is aware of the weaknesses of the ecological approach but handles it to good advantage. The findings of numerous statistical studies are used skillfully.

THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK. By ARTHUR E. FINK. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1942, pp. x+518.

This book is designed for four classes of readers: college students, beginning social workers, lay persons interested in social work, and board members of social work institutions. Its main centers of description are case work, group work, and community organization. Brief but well-written chapters treat of family welfare work, child welfare services, medical social work, probation and parole work, visiting teacher work, public welfare work, group work, and community welfare work. Some important omissions occur, but the field of social work is so extensive and its types so varied that no book of ordinary size could include them all.

The unique phase of the book is the submission of a case study or of case materials at the close of each chapter. These case studies are excellent for analysis and discussion. They bring out specific and concrete aspects of each particular field of social work under discussion. They represent novel and effective approaches to a study of the field of social work. Thirty pages of up-to-date and well-selected bibliography are valuable additions to the book.

E.S.B.

CONSUMER COOPERATIVE LEADERSHIP, Organizing and Running Consumer Cooperatives. Boston: Edward A. Filene Goodwill Fund, Inc., 1942, pp. xiii+173.

In eleven chapters extensive directions are given with reference to organizing and operating a consumers' cooperative store. The first six chapters deal with the development of policies, the organizing of committees, the setting up and equipping of a store, the problems of incorporation, of taxes, of the actual opening of a store. A minimum capital of \$9,000, a minimum volume of \$1,500 of business per week, a minimum membership of 350 or 400 members, and a full-fledged market handling groceries, fresh produce, and meats are excellent in order to meet modern competition, but not easy to reach via the buying club procedure. Moreover, a store of that caliber calls for more experience than its members ordinarily possess at the outset.

Five chapters explain the latest methods of administering a consumer cooperative. The work of the board of directors is discussed, and the relationships between the board and the manager are pointed out. The functions of the major committees of a cooperative are analyzed. While four pages of the text and Appendix I are given over to the activities of the Educational Committee, the importance of this Committee is greatly underestimated. The role of advisory groups, discussion groups,

and study-action groups deserves the space of two or more main chapters in a book of this kind. The work of the Finance Committee in interpreting the cooperative's financial condition and problems regularly to the members so as to arouse and maintain their active interest also needs further emphasis. The distinction between the traditional rules of order and cooperative rules of order may well be developed in a revised edition.

E.S.B.

THE STATE BECOMES A SOCIAL WORKER. An Administrative Interpretation. By ARTHUR W. JAMES. Richmond: Garrett and Massie, Inc., 1942, pp. xiv+368.

The purpose of this book is stated to be the presentation of a "case history" of the growth and development of public welfare in Virginia from 1922 to 1940, as reflected in public addresses, bulletins, reports, correspondence, memoranda, and periodicals of the Department of Public Welfare. For the first sixteen years of this period the author served successively as field representative, director of social organization, and Commissioner of Public Welfare, so that he has been able to select his own material and that prepared by others with a view to unfolding the inside story of the administration of public welfare in an important state, in a period of unparalleled expansion in the United States.

The documents are arranged chronologically in two parts. Under the title "Public Welfare Organization," Part I attempts to trace the change in philosophy of government from charities and corrections to public welfare, and to set out the organization and functions of the various state central authorities in this field. This part of the book seems repetitious and superficial. The articles, however, represent efforts of public officials to explain to lay audiences what provisions Virginia has made for various groups.

Part II, entitled "Public Welfare Programs," gives a more satisfactory picture of programs of poor relief reform, child welfare, penal reform, mental hygiene, and social security measures. The final chapter, on "Administrative Counseling," is especially valuable in the glimpse it gives of administrative problems in the process of solution. For example, such questions as acceptance or rejection of gifts of property to the state and whether the feeble-minded belong primarily to the welfare or education authority involve problems of policy familiar to every administrator.

On the whole, the book represents a worth-while effort to provide the student of public welfare with the raw materials of interpretation and administration, from a State which has had a stable program under good leadership.

ARLIEN JOHNSON

AMERICAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS. By MARY ELIZABETH WALSH. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942, pp. xii+234.

Written expressly for the purpose of correlating Catholic teaching with the observed facts of social science, this text on social problems arrives as one of a series of college student manuals for students of the Roman Catholic religion. Judged from that point of view, the presentation is commendable and indicates that Dr. Walsh is thoroughly familiar with the implications and significance of the most important social problems. From a strictly scientific point of view, however, the tendency to indoctrinate theory with Catholic theology smacks of propaganda. Take for instance the statement that "it is really a social problem if Catholics fail to go to Mass and participate fully in it." No scientific sociologist would be willing to make the bold statement that if some people fail to partake of church communions a social problem thereupon arises. Aside from this championship of a particular type of theology, many of the discussions are very worthy. In the offering of materials having to do with the actual work of church agents many not so well-known facts are offered, such reporting being given especially well in the chapter on crime. Non-Catholics will find a great deal to debate over, but the design of the book should not be overlooked.

M.J.V.

DOORS TO JOBS. By EMILY H. HUNTINGTON. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1942, pp. xviii+454.

Here is a well-organized study and account of the status of the labor market in California as it existed before Pearl Harbor. The study itself was conducted in 1938 to determine what centers exist for exchange of jobs and workers, how these centers function, and what hopes might be held for the future. A state-wide system of employment offices had been set up in 1935 but had not for various reasons become a real factor in the organization of the labor market, despite the fact that nearly 30,000 placements had been made in March of 1941, owing to the increased demand for defense workers. The author believes that the state employment service may now and in the future reveal to both employers and workers its real potentialities for coordinating activities in the organization of the labor market.

Included in the study are surveys of the placement resources of the largest industrial and agricultural centers of the state, of the state employment service and governmental agencies, and of the nongovernmental agencies. Attention has been directed also to the labor contractor,

the trade unions, and employer associations insofar as they affect placement services. Professor Huntington concludes that the present diversities in the various placement agencies and institutions dealing with placement bring about a wasteful state of affairs, and that there is a great need for definite labor market centers. It is undesirable that workers should have to pay for their jobs, and it is most essential that the State Employment Service should coordinate its activities with the other agencies, thus bringing about a real organization of the labor market. The study has been carefully made and the report is valuable for the future planning of employment resources in California.

M.J.V.

YOUTH IN THE CCC. By KENNETH HOLLAND and FRANK ERNEST HILL.
Prepared for The American Youth Commission. Washington, D.C.:
American Council of Education, 1942, pp. xvi+262.

Since 1933, 2,750,000 young men and boys have been enrolled in the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). The authors present the story of the CCC: how the enrollees are selected and their background, their adjustment to the CCC and to the camp life, the commanders and advisers, the program of training and guidance, how the enrollees work and their accomplishments, the conditions of health and morals, the enrollees as citizens, and their return home. Special interviews were held with 419 enrollees in order to ascertain a more intimate view of their life, experiences, and reactions.

A considerable number of the enrollees thought that the CCC had helped them in many and varied ways, such as: had improved their "morale," taught them to get along with others, provided them with better food and living conditions, increased their knowledge of health, taught them work habits and skills for future jobs, improved their general education through leisure-time courses, and given them a chance to earn money. These are personal benefits apart from the value of the CCC to the nation, particularly the worth of conservation. That the CCC program is not entirely satisfactory is evidenced by the fact that 500,000 of the 2,750,000 enrollees have left the Corps by desertion or for disciplinary reasons. Apart from the problems of administration and guidance, and the health and safety of the enrollees, three special conduct problems are stressed—drinking, gambling, and sex relations. These have assumed serious proportions, but the interviews revealed that the Corps cannot be considered wholly responsible for the condition, except in some cases, for most of the interviewees confessed that they had acquired these habits of conduct prior to their enrollment in the CCC.

M.H.N.

THE PEOPLE'S BUSINESS, The Progress of Consumer Cooperatives in America. By JOSHUA K. BOLLES. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942, pp. x+170.

In a vivid journalistic style Mr. Bolles tells the current story of consumers' cooperatives in the United States. To a person unacquainted with the consumer cooperation movement the book gives an easily read account of the startling and yet democratic development. The major lines of cooperative advancement are highlighted. The underlying procedure of consumer progress through cooperative savings from earnings into production, step by step, without cost to the consumer, is neatly told. Farmers' cooperatives, grocery cooperatives, credit union cooperatives, insurance cooperatives, campus cooperatives, funeral service cooperatives, electrification cooperatives, health cooperatives—all receive the spotlight. The flashlight is turned on each, and if for a moment only, yet in true perspective. The samples of facts that are given have been carefully checked and they are up to date. Excellent photographs add to the appeal of the story. An annotated bibliography of 26 books on cooperation is given, also the Declaration of Cooperation adopted by the Board of Directors of the Cooperative League, October 21, 1941, and the London Resolution adopted on the Nineteenth International Cooperative Day, July 5, 1941. The book will stimulate many people to learn more about consumers' cooperation and, what is more important, to participate in the movement.

E.S.B.

THREE ASPECTS OF LABOR DYNAMICS. By W. S. WOYTINSKY. Washington: Committee on Social Security, Social Science Research Council, 1942, pp. xiv+249.

The three aspects of labor dynamics subjected to research and reported on in this book are: (1) labor turnover, (2) turnover of the unemployed, and (3) additional workers in depressions. At the present time, as the foreword indicates, labor shortages have now overshadowed the specter of unemployment, but the studies made by the Committee may provide valuable clues for the future postwar period of adjustment. Labor dynamics has been interpreted as including all kinds of variations in the labor force of the nation with emphasis upon its shifting and turnover in industry. Among the important findings of the study have been: (1) turnover rates usually were high in periods of prosperity and low in depressions; (2) turnover rates, while varying from industry to industry, town to town, and factory to factory, were smaller among skilled workers and those long employed; (3) from 11 to 13 per cent of pay-roll

workers have constituted an "unstable" group responsible for much of the shifting; (4) during the first World War, turnover rates doubled because of labor scarcity; (5) the main flow of manpower during the prewar and postwar periods up to 1930 was mainly determined by the free decision of the individual worker; (6) after 1930, about 75 per cent of all terminations of employment were initiated by employers who sought to rid themselves of surplus labor by large-scale discharges and layoffs. The study does not indicate whether or not the so-called "unstable group" of workers were misfits in industry. Perhaps indirectly may be read into the report the need for intensive vocational guidance and training.

M.J.V.

BY THIS SIGN CONQUER. By G. BROMLEY OXNAM. New York: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1942, pp. 214.

THE ETHICAL IDEALS OF JESUS. By G. BROMLEY OXNAM. New York: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1941, pp. 135.

In these two books an outstanding religious leader, a bishop of the Methodist Church, analyzes the economic and social unadjustment of the times in straightforward style. He protests a long war, believing that "total war, by its very nature, eventuates in total destruction, if long continued." Therefore, time is important, for it is necessary to win a war to save the conditions of freedom before civilization is destroyed by total war everywhere.

He proposes a crusade that will clear up the ethical confusion of the present decades, that will free people from "obsolescent conceptions of property and sovereignty," and that will overcome "a cancerlike proneness to respond negatively to reformist proposals rather than to discover positive answers to imperative problems." He finds positive answers in the dynamic religious teachings of the Founder of Christianity. He discusses with clarity, vigor, and sanity and with common sense how these teachings under appropriate leadership may bring about a permanent peace, a democratic international order, and a better economic society. Religion must free itself from the belief that "a system that calls forth greed, ability to take from others—in a word, that exalts the virtues of strife—is established of God." He urges a broadly conceived cooperative order that will supplant the competitive order, that will enable people to "cooperate for the common good rather than compete for self-interest," and that will recognize the sacredness of personality.

RACES AND CULTURE

NATIVE AMERICAN. *The Book of My Youth.* By RAY STANNARD BAKER (DAVID GRAYSON). New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941, pp. viii+336.

The keynote is given by the author in the Foreword. He claims to have had "the rare experience of having passed through all the stages of American development from pioneering to the complicated and dangerous civilization of today." His reactions to these changes comprise the gist of this biography. The story is laid in the Middle West and in Chicago, and the storyteller is youthful in spirit and greatly interested in social relationships.

FAR EASTERN WAR—1937-1941. By HAROLD S. QUIGLEY. World Peace Foundation, 1942.

It is always a pleasure to read a book written by a known authority on the subject. Professor Harold S. Quigley, of the University of Minnesota, is a recognized authority on the Pacific and the Far East. He has visited China and Japan many times and has written frequently and well on the international issues of that region. His *Far East: An International Survey* contains an analysis of the international relations of the Far East from 1929 to July, 1937. It is a small handbook which has been used by university classes throughout the country. Fortunately, for those interested in the Far East, his latest publication, *Far Eastern War*, brings Dr. Quigley's readers up to Pearl Harbor.

The author achieves a high degree of objectivity in his analysis of the war and Japan's program for a "New Order" in Eastern Asia. His statements are not only authenticated by voluminous footnote citations of leading authorities but by frequent quotations from official Chinese and Japanese documents. This gives the reader an opportunity to draw his own conclusions as to Japan's intentions in Asia. Additional source material is found in a lengthy appendix, which contains the texts, in translation, of a large number of official statements and documents.

This book, although scholarly and authoritative, is by no means dull. On the contrary, it will doubtless enjoy a wide circulation among general readers who are not familiar with the politics of the Orient. Dr. Quigley, in his first four chapters, lays a background for the uninformed reader. He discusses progress in China from the founding of the National government at Nanking, militarism and industrialism in Japan, China's

international position since the turn of the century, and the major issues in controversy at the present time. From 1937 to December 7, 1941, material events are carefully recorded.

It is interesting to note that Professor Quigley is of the opinion that in the war of the Pacific Japan is not the tool of Hitler, but of her own militarists, whose action was pursuant to the war upon China and their imperialist program in the south Pacific. The common people of Japan he would not hold responsible for this war of aggression. On the contrary, he considers them the victims of circumstance, lacking in political experience and deprived of liberal leadership by a vigilant police.

LEON H. ELLIS

JAPAN: A WORLD PROBLEM. By H. J. TIMPERLEY. New York: The John Day Company, 1942, pp. 150.

The author seeks to show that "ideas of world domination were working in the blood of the Japanese for generations prior to the reopening of the country to foreign intercourse in the middle of the nineteenth century," and that "an analysis of motivating forces behind Japan's expansionist program pointed to the existence of deep-rooted psychological causes and suggested that popular economic explanations were inadequate." There are several documents offered as evidence in the appendixes. Even though one accepts the historical validity of Mr. Timperley's thesis, his carelessness in treatment, resulting in such statements as, "According to Shinto, the national faith of Japan, the Emperor is an incarnate Deity occupying much the same position as Jehovah occupies in Judaism," makes one question the value of his work.

WILLIAM B. NASH, JR.

NEGROES IN BRAZIL. By DONALD PIERSON. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942, pp. xxviii+392.

In the Introduction, Robert E. Park advances the theory that, since Brazil is a large, unwieldy country and in danger of falling apart, "it has seemed that the security and the solidarity of the nation depended upon its ability to assimilate and ultimately to amalgamate its different immigrant populations." Hence, it has not antagonized its Negro minority but has given its members a chance to become assimilated. Bahia on the coast, 700 miles north of Rio de Janeiro, is the center of this study. Bahia has been the main center of Negro immigration to Brazil. As a result of slavery, a large Negro population has developed, and with the passage of time a larger mixed-blood population has come into being. Negro slaves

have been released from slavery as individuals and on the basis of sentiment by many owners during the past several scores of years. As a result of this gradual release from servility and of the absence of a hate-producing civil war, the Negro has slowly but surely been coming into his own and "receiving a constantly increasing measure of social recognition." It is of far-reaching significance to note the conclusion that "individual ability, personal ties and family solidarity, instead of external pressure, were the levers of social advancement." While the rise of the Negro in the United States has taken place largely in the Negro world, the Negro in Brazil has risen as a part of the whole community. Another interesting generalization made by Dr. Pierson is that "prejudice exists in Brazil; but it is class rather than race prejudice." In other words, a high-class Negro receives more social recognition from white people than does a low-class white person.

It is a real contribution to the study of race relations that is made by Dr. Pierson, who is now a professor of sociology of the *Escola Livre de Sociologia e Politica de Sao Paulo*, Brazil. He is one of an increasing group of scholars who are putting Brazil on the map sociologically. While it is not clear that the findings of this excellent study of the Negroes of Bahia are representative of the situation in which the Negro finds himself farther south in Brazil, it nevertheless does cover the center of Negro life in our Portuguese-speaking national neighbor. E.S.B.

SUN CHIEF. THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A HOPI INDIAN. Edited by LEO W. SIMMONS. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1942, pp. xii+460.

This is the frank, intimate, and comprehensive autobiography of Don C. Talayesva of Oraibi, Arizona, well known as the Sun Chief. He relates the influences to which he was exposed while living as a Hopi Indian until the age of ten, then his training until the age of twenty to become an American citizen, after which time he reverted completely to the Hopi way of life. The Hopi customs, beliefs, rituals, and culture patterns in general stand in bold relief as his life story is told. Life histories of this kind are becoming invaluable sources for ethnographic study, and this autobiography is one of the best. The editor has included a brief description of Hopi life in the Oraibi pueblo. There are also several appendices: the first is a character study of Don, the Sun Chief; the second relates legends and myths of the Hopi; the third is a guide to Hopi kinship; the fourth gives samples of composition by the narrator.

J.E.N.

SOCIAL THEORY

ENVIRONMENT AND EDUCATION. A Symposium. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942, pp. vii+66.

Dr. E. W. Burgess discusses secularization and sophistication as two major effects of urbanization. The manifold ways in which the desire for status is educational are analyzed by W. Lloyd Warner. The role of culture in the development of personality is presented by Margaret Mead. She distinguishes primitive culture from "our own culture" in three ways: (1) homogeneous versus heterogeneous; (2) slow change versus rapid change; and (3) simple racial stocks versus diversified racial stocks.

VOLTAIRE AND BECCARIA AS REFORMERS OF CRIMINAL LAW.

By MARCELLO T. MAESTRO. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942, pp. xii+177.

This study begins with a statement of criminal law characteristic of Europe at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and the first humanitarian reactions voiced by such writers as Montaigne, Grotius, Lamouignon, La Bruyere, Montesquieu, Rousseau, and others from the sixteenth century onward. The conditions of criminal law were so revolting to Beccaria and Voltaire that both dedicated themselves to leadership in a reform movement. The author shows how Voltaire was influenced by Beccaria's *Treatise on Crimes and Punishments*, and what Voltaire himself contributed, and the importance of both in causing widespread reforms. As the author states, this is the first time Voltaire and Beccaria have been studied together in a systematic and critical work. The book is scholarly, and a valuable contribution to the science of criminology.

J.E.N.

THE ROOTS OF NATIONAL SOCIALISM. By ROHAN D'O. BUTLER. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1942, pp. 304.

In this brilliant and readable survey of German thought from the time of Herder to the present, any illusions concerning the originality of National Socialism or Nazism are thoroughly exploded. It is clearly shown that Nazism is a poisonous seepage drawn from the works of poets, philosophers, economists, industrialists, politicians, militarists, historians, and theorists, whose names have loomed large in German culture, but whose influence has in some particulars been incompatible with international freedom. The survey falls into several distinct periods.

From 1783-1815 there was what may be termed a romantic school of philosophy, apparently harmless but very intriguing; what then existed merely in the imagination has found reality in modern totalitarianism. The contributors of note during that period include Herder, Kant, Goethe, Schiller, Novalis, Schlegel, Fichte, von Humboldt, Schleiermacher, von Kleist, and Schelling. From them came the ideas of the German folk nation, the organic state, autarchy, nationalism, militarism, and other basic concepts. The second period, 1815-1848, was one of reaction, and the chief influences are traced to Müller, Ranke, Haller, and List. While Germany was undergoing unification, from 1848-1871, the leading thinkers were Rodbertus, Lassalle, and de Gobineau. During the days of the Empire, 1871-1918, the people eagerly drank from the pens of Treitschke, Bismarck, Nietzsche, Chamberlain, Dühring, Lamprecht, Hartmann, Bernhardi, and Naumann. The philosophy of the period of the Republic, 1918-1933, is represented by Bernhardi, Rathenau, Keyserling, Thomas Mann, Oswald Spengler, and Moeller. Throughout these successive periods, some of the ideas first regarded as romantic gradually crystallized; all Hitler and his regime had to do was to synthesize them into modern German totalitarianism. It thus becomes evident that destroying Hitlerism is not so simple; it means in particular the debunking of German philosophy upon which it is founded, and, if the German people are to share equally with others in a new world order, they will have to develop a new philosophy. No student of National Socialism should fail to read this survey of its background.

J.E.N.

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL SCIENCE: A SURVEY OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS. By G. C. ATTEBERRY, J. L. AUBIE, E. F. HUNT, and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, Vol. II, pp. xxvi-xlix+800.

The second volume of this introduction deals with the competitive system and government in relation to social problems. The first volume was devoted mainly to the basic factors in social problems and the problems of social relations. Now that the two volumes are completed, a fuller appraisal of them is possible. The reader is impressed with the recency of the material and the up-to-date bibliographies. Many of the footnotes contain references published in 1941.

The "problem approach" is adhered to throughout the two volumes. Each chapter contains a wide range of material, a list of terms to be understood, questions for discussion, and a selected bibliography of recent books. The authors stick closely to actual situations and present concise descriptions of the items included in their purview. The student is intro-

duced to contemporary problems. An effort is made to indicate the relevant historical data to show how the problems came to be and what has been done about them. The findings of the social sciences, particularly economics, sociology, and political science, have been utilized as these have contributed to the understanding of the problems, but the focus of attention is on the problems rather than on the various social sciences and their respective fields. Thus, it is really an introduction to social problems, as the subtitle indicates, rather than an introduction to social science. Teachers may object to the wide range of topics considered, preferring to deal with fewer problems more thoroughly than is possible with the use of a comprehensive text.

M.H.N.

SCIENCE AND MAN. RUTH NANDA ANSHEN, Editor. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942, pp. viii+494.

In a worthy preface entitled, "Man as an Element of Every Experiment," the editor of this book, containing twenty-four original essays by a group of selected and representative scientists, declares that its purpose is to indicate how science may be returned to man, the body to mind. Man is a totality, a unity; and, if science has ever conceived of him as anything else, other than the microcosmos, it misses the explanation of the macrocosmos. Therefore, science at its best must not neglect any method of approach which will defeat the comprehension of life as a whole. The purpose of life is "the realization of the fulfillment of Man in all his potentialities, the recognition that the entire synergy, the entire dynamism of the individual must be included in the evaluation of Man, of the human person." This is a philosophy of values, and rightly asks that science become the servant of man rather than his master.

The essays are classified under five major divisions: namely, science and the universe; science and its materials, methods, aims; science and society; science and internationalism; and science and individuals. Such well-known men as Hrdlicka, Niebuhr, Koffka, Malinowski, Julian Huxley, Mumford, and Ralph Barton Perry are among the twenty-four noted contributors. These have written materials drawn from the fields of research in which they have been vitally interested—religion, psychology, anthropology, sociology, international relations, and technology—and indicate the attempt to show that every method must be employed in dealing scientifically with man. And science "must establish a penetrating criticism of its own foundations," as well as the embracing of philosophy, if it is to escape some conceptions that have at times induced something akin to social chaos and left man in a state of bewilderment.

M.J.V.

CHALLENGE TO KARL MARX. By JOHN KENNETH TURNER. New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, Inc., 1941, pp. viii+455.

The author of this latest book about Marx attempts to explain Marx and at the same time evaluate previous critics. He first distinguishes between Marxism and pseudo Marxism. Then the basic prophecies about the middle class, living standards, the revolutionizing process, and the time of the anticipated revolution are discussed. The labor theory of value, surplus value, Marx's law of wages, profit theory, crises, and other concepts stressed by Marx are also critically analyzed not only in terms of theoretical statement or definition, but regarded practically in the light of actual economic and political development.

Marxism is taken up further as a philosophy. Of special interest are the chapters dealing with democracy as involved in this theory. The development of Bolshevism and Leninism carries the subject to 1939. The last three chapters, which present the author's conclusion, objectify what the entire book has thus far attempted to expound. There may be an excessive use of quotation marks, not only for excerpts but for simple words or phrases, which interrupts the flow of thought and therefore does not facilitate the analysis. Nevertheless, the student of Marx as a contributor to philosophy and as a factor in social change will find this an important book.

J.E.N.

SURVEY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE. By MARION B. SMITH. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942, pp. xxxiv+690.

There is a growing feeling that a general course in the social sciences is needed for all college students. The emphasis varies by schools. In some the stress is on social problems, with no special reference to the respective contributions of the several social sciences. Others stress the findings and contributions of the social sciences. Still others take a middle ground and weave the contributions of the various specialties into the analysis of social problems. The author of this book, with the editorial collaboration of Carroll R. Daugherty, divides the material into four parts, dealing, respectively, with human development, population composition and distribution, social institutions, and culture change, the bulk of the material dealing with the institutional aspects of our society. That the approach is historical can be seen in nearly every division. First, the development of life and of man is traced from the biological, psychological, geographic, and cultural angles. This is followed by an analysis of the composition, distribution, mobility, increase, classes, and groups of the population. The study of the domestic, educational, recreational, religious, health, aes-

thetic, economic, and political institutions follows a similar pattern, dealing with such items as the nature, origin, development, functions, changes, and problems of each type of institution. The question of culture change received only slight consideration.

The book is not equally thorough throughout but on the whole is a teachable text. It grew out of classroom experience and is adapted to that use.

M.H.N.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY. By RICHARD T. LAPIERE and RAUL R. FARNSWORTH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1942, second edition, pp. xii+511.

The second edition carries the same underlying conclusions as does the first, judged by the statements in the Recapitulation to each edition. Some of these conclusions are: "The human individual plays but a small role on a great and crowded stage" and "he plays that role largely in accordance with a socially predetermined script," or again "human nature can be changed, but only as the forms of society are changed." The authors have increased their emphasis on the observation that "human behavior is interactional rather than reactional." New major topics appear, such as, The Sociocultural Bases of Human Behavior, Types of Human Behavior, The Covert Behaviors, Social Change and Malpreparation, and Social Change and Maladjustment. These last two topics are perhaps more sociological than social psychological. Four of the original chapters have been omitted in this edition, although some of the materials appear in reorganized ways. The materials in the first edition have been overhauled considerably both in topical and content expressions. Subjects such as crowd psychology and group psychology receive little attention, while leadership appears only in varied connections and not as a major theme. Altogether the second edition is a distinct advance over the original.

E.S.B.

SOCIOLOGY OF LAW. By GEORGES GURVITCH. New York: Alliance Book Corporation, 1942, pp. xx+309.

The author brings to bear on this profound subject the benefit of his European training and scholarship. He was formerly professor of sociology at the University of Strasbourg, France, but is now a member of the staff of the New School for Social Research, New York. As Roscoe Pound remarks in the Preface, European scholars have given attention to the sociology of law, whereas Americans have directed their study "toward the practical problems of the legal order," and have developed a sociological jurisprudence.

After defining law and defining sociology, the author reviews the work of the forerunners and founders of the sociology of law, beginning with Aristotle, Hobbes, and Montesquieu and including Durkheim, Hauriou, Max Weber, Holmes, Pound, and Cardozo. The forms of sociality are analyzed, and two levels of profundity are emphasized, namely, "direct, spontaneous sociality, and organized, reflected sociality." The first exerts "only more or less interior pressures"; and the other, sanctions and constraints. Further, there are different kinds of law that are produced by these forms of sociality. These kinds are denominated social law, inter-individual law, law of the masses, of the community, of communion, uni-, multi-, or super-functional law. They move "from spontaneity and flexibility to reinforced crystallization and conceptualization." There are layers of law and levels of depth of law. The author discusses a differential sociology of law based on Max Weber's sociology of law. Under the head of a genetic sociology of law two lines of study are proposed: (1) "of regularities as tendencies of change within each type of legal system" and (2) "of the factors of such regularities of transformation in the life of law in general." The strength of Gurvitch's analysis lies in its development of law as an expression of sociality and social grouping, in its review of the history of the sociology of law, and in its suggestions for a differential sociology of law and a genetic sociology of law.

E.S.B.

AN INTRODUCTION TO SOCIOLOGY. By L. L. BERNARD. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1942, pp. xiii+1,041.

The clear thinking of sociologist Bernard has enabled him to write a most effective and comprehensive introductory chapter to a text characterized by general excellence. Sociology is rightly reviewed as the science which is the "source of much useful information in the art of living and effective social behavior." It is "the science which provides the members of human society with the knowledge most essential to effective adjustment," and "the agency especially designed for the production and dissemination of such knowledge when it has been produced." The relative positions of the other social sciences have been carefully stated and the twofold function of sociology noted. They are: (1) the assembling of "all the available knowledge about human behavior in social situations" and the reduction of this to general principles serving for explanation of adjustment problems and guidance in social control; (2) through the dependent sociological sciences, the same assembling for particular aspects of social organization, social control, and social interpretation. Sociology is again elevated to the Comtian level and serves to guide the

other social sciences in the correction of biases induced by narrow specializations. In turn, however, sociology is dependent upon these specializations for the accurate and detailed knowledge gained by research into the several segments of the whole. The synthetic nature of sociology and its more highly specialized aspects have been made definite and concise.

The explanatory text of this point of view contains six parts: the development of human society, the physical factors and processes of social change, the biological factors and processes in social change, psychological factors in social change, cultural factors in social change, and social organization and social control. Thus, Part I discusses social origins material drawn from anthropology; Part II, materials from the geographical school; Part III, from the demographical and hereditarist schools; Part IV, from the psychological sciences; and Part V, from the cultural school of thought. Part VI deals principally with the social processes of conflict and cooperation lending themselves to social organization and the need for social control. This logical procedure succeeds in investing the text with penetrating and illuminating disclosures of human society and its functioning. It also affords the student a good opportunity to visualize societal evolution in its various phases of development. Author Bernard calls it a naturalistic account of man's adjustment to his world, and his selectivity of emphasis makes it a most successful adventure.

In this short review it is impossible to single out all of the outstanding merits of the text, but something should be said about the worthiness and timeliness of the final discussion on social control through enlightenment, the highest type of control, and the type that needs to be incorporated with the plans for the social reconstruction to come at the close of the present war. The book is well illustrated, the pictures being nicely integrated and meaningful. The purposes of the author have been well sustained throughout, and the book emerges as a definite contribution in the field.

M.J.V.

SOCIAL FICTION

THE SONG OF BERNADETTE. By FRANZ WERFEL. New York: The Viking Press, 1942, pp. 575.

Another great treat is in store for those who enjoyed *The Forty Days of Musa Dagh* and *Embezzled Heaven*, for the author of these has now written another great novel, this one woven about the story of Bernadette Soubirous and the miracles of the shrine at Lourdes. And how he has told

it! The magic spell that he creates catches something of the spell which must have seized Bernadette in the grotto when she first beheld the vision. Told with great tenderness and a deep sincerity, the simple story becomes an inspired epic. Narrator Werfel in his preface tells how he escaped the Nazi hordes and took refuge for several weeks in the old French city of Lourdes, vowing that if ever he made good his escape he would sing the song of Bernadette, the little girl whose simple soul had been touched by a magnificent vision of spiritual beauty and faith. Werfel is now in California and here is the story.

While the novel does not portray modern social problems, it has a universality of thought and theme which transcends the limits of time. Its portrayal of humanity in its infinite variety makes it a deeply moving social psychological document. Its characters have been caught from every social stratum—the princes of the church, the politicians of the state, the little people of the community, the outcasts and dregs of the social order. Then there is the crowd of which Werfel can say, "Now every human assemblage creates a personality of its own, and in some respects possesses other, more delicate and less sense-conditioned perceptory nerves than the individual." His study of political pressure men and groups is fraught with present-day significance and implications.

Best of all is his portrait of the personality of his heroine, who suffered at the hands of church, state, and community for telling of what she saw and what it meant to her. It is a study of steadfastness and undying, relentless faith, a faith that defied every conceivable obstacle, a faith that refused to be shaken or cast aside. Church and state had ample reasons for discrediting her vision. The cruelties and sufferings inflicted upon her give Werfel the cue to underline human pangs and sorrows with prose that is often sublimely beautiful. He never seeks to convert, but he does dare to sing as a Jew the song of the little Catholic girl because he wanted to "magnify the divine mystery and the holiness of men—careless of a period which has turned away with scorn and rage and indifference from these ultimate values of our mortal lot."

Werfel is as zealous as Bernadette; his faith in the ultimate triumph of the goodness of humanity is as strong because he has realized through sympathetic introspection this high understanding of real values. Nazi terrorists have not shaken him any more than the powerful were able to wrench the inner beauty of the faith of Bernadette. The human soul cannot be destroyed by organized ambition and lust if it clings to the good. That was the faith of Socrates, of Jesus, of St. Joan, and of St. Bernadette. One comes away from it all enriched and strengthened by sharing with Werfel this great epic poem in the form of a novel.

M.J.V.